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ABSTRACT

This proceedings contains papers presented at the sixth annual conference of the Assembly for the Teaching of English Grammar. Papers in the proceedings are: "The Politics of Grammar" (Sabah A. Salih); "(Still) Trying to Find an Answer to the Problem of 'Error' in Writing" (William McCleary); "Grammar and Literacy: Embedding Outside Sources in Text" (Jim Kenkel and Robert Yates); "The Nine-Question Method of Teaching Grammar" (Glenn Swetman); "Simplifying Tree Structures in the Grammar Classroom" (R.A. Buck); "Teaching Grammar through Technical Documents" (Jim Brosnan); "Proposal for an Official AETG Bibliographer" (Delma McLeod-Porter); "A Hands-On Non-Traditional Grammar That's Fun" (Anthony Hunter); "Between Restrictive and Nonrestrictive: Amplifying Clauses" (Brock Haussamen); "Using Error Notebooks to Improve Grammar" (James Boswell, Jr.); "Surrealism and Grammar: Creatively Reinvigorating the Classroom" (Kevin Griffith); and "Functional Grammar for English (Not Latin)" (Carolyn G. Hartnett). Minutes of the 1994 business meeting, the 1995 conference program, and a list of conference participants are attached. (RS)

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Proceedings

of the

Sixth Annual Conference

of the

Assembly for the Teaching of English Grammar

July 28 & 29, 1995

Pennsylvania College of Technology Williamsport, PA

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Contents

Introduction 4

The Politics of Grammar

Sabah A. Salih 5

(Still) Trying to Find an Answer to the Problem of 'Error' in Writing

William McCleary 9

Grammar and Literacy: Embedding Outside Sources in Text

Jim Kenkel & Robert Yates 15

The Nine-Question Method of Teaching Grammar

Glenn Swetman 24

Simplifying Tree Structures in the Grammar Classroom

R.A. Buck 28

Teaching Grammar Through Technical Documents

Jim Brosnan 36

Proposal for an Official ATEG Bibliographer

Delma McLeod-Porter 40

A Hands-On Non-Traditional Grammar That's Fun

Anthony Hunter 42

Between Restrictive and Nonrestrictive: Amplifying Clauses

Brock Haussamen 48

Using Error Notebooks to Improve Grammar

James Boswell, Jr. 51

Surrealism and Grammar: Creatively Reinvigorating the Classroom

Kevin Griffith 53

Functional Grammar for English (Not Latin)

Carolyn G. Hartnett 56

Minutes of the 1994 ATEG Business Meeting 60

1995 Conference Program 62

1995 ATEG Conference Participants 63

Introduction

Ed Vavra

Welcome to the *Proceedings* of the Sixth Annual ATEG conference. I hope that you find things of interest in these pages. I would like to note that the *Proceedings* of all ATEG conferences are still, and will remain available from ATEG. The ATEG copyright covers the book; copyrights for individual papers belong to their respective authors. [For more information on previous proceedings, contact me at DIF 112, Pennsylvania College of Technology, One College Ave., Williamsport, PA 17701. e-mail: EVAVRA@PCT.EDU. Or, if I, like the years, have passed on, locate ATEG's new home through NCTE.]

As "editor," it has been my position to remain as close as possible to the originals presented to me. Other than compiling, all I have done is to change a few obviously typographical errors. As a result, there are differences in style (Some authors underline titles; others put them in italics, etc.), and there are sentences that are stylistically, even grammatically, questionable. Particularly with writing that is about grammar, I believe that the text should reflect the author, not the editor. I apologize in advance for any errors which I may have introduced in the process of reproducing the manuscripts.

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The Politics of Grammar

Sabah A. Salih
Bloomsburg, PA

Fear, imprisonment, torture, and assassination are the common means by which a totalitarian state controls its people. Another equally effective mean is language, which the state turns into an official domain where what gets said and how it is said requires state approval. The aim is of course to force people to consume and obey state ideology. A common slogan in most totalitarian states, like Assad's Syria and Saddam's Iraq, is that "We all speak one language"--a oneness which is militantly constructed, protected, and elevated into a paralyzing sacredness that no dictatorship can be without. As an aspect of language, grammar, too, becomes the subject of official intervention. In the case of Iraq before Saddam, speaking grammatically, however unnatural considering how different spoken and written Arabic are from one another, was considered patriotic. Because the dictator Ahmad Hassan al-Bakr had decided that grammar was a good thing, violating its rules came to be seen as a treacherous act, implying, disloyalty to the state and its leader, among other things. But when this dictator from the upper class was replaced with another from the lower class, grammar came to be seen as reactionary, repressive, and elitist, and thus the state paved the way for a war on grammar.

To understand the politics of grammar under Saddam Hussein and his predecessor al-Bakr, we first need to see how their dictatorship redefined the role and direction of education in Iraq. Before the Ba'athists came to power in Iraq in 1968, education was profession-oriented. There was a huge demand for doctors, engineers, scientists, and teachers; but as the country's then four universities could not meet the demand, professionals were brought in from wherever they could be found: Egypt, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Bulgaria, the former Soviet Union, even Cuba. The state had no problem with that. It was simply a technical need. That was all. The country needed more teachers, more doctors, more engineers, and importing them was simply a business matter; there was nothing ideological about it. A profession was simply a profession; it did not entail anything else. One went to school to get a training in this or that field. Universities were not in any other business, and the assumption was that this was how systems of education worked the world over. Professionalism was the goal.

After 1968, however, education began to undergo a revolution in Iraq. Education came increasingly to be seen as an ideological, rather than a professional, enterprise, and as such, the state concluded, it could be made to serve a political purposes as well. But first the state had to make sure that it had a monopoly on education. Almost overnight, all schools, from kindergartens to universities, were nationalized. Now it was considered criminal to operate a school independently. But to make education serve a political purpose, the state had to do more; and it did. In the past, for example, if one chose to study medicine, then medicine, along with courses in related fields, were all that the person needed to study. Now the state required every university student, no matter what his/her field of study, to take courses in Arab history, sociology, and literature. But these were not courses that just about any professional with a graduate degree could teach. No, these were courses designed inside out by the state; the state had a particular version of history, of sociology, of literature; and it wanted to pass it on to students at every level, but especially at the university level, where students were considered more ripe for indoctrination. The ideological goal was clear: create a new generation of loyal consumers of state ideology: people who more or less thought alike and looked up to the state for direction.

To extend its ideological hold on education, the state also moved simultaneously in the areas of primary and secondary education. Here, too, private schools were abolished; here, too, a new curriculum for the humanities was developed; here, too, the aim was the same: to control and direct what went into students' heads about history, sociology, and politics. These goals were clearly laid out in the ruling Arab Ba'ath Party's Political Report for 1970. The educational system, said the report, had to be compatible with "the principles and aims of the Party and Revolution." New syllabi had to be prepared at once "for every level from nursery school to university"; they had to be "inspired by the principles of the Party and Revolution." That meant rooting out "reactionary bourgeois and liberal ideas" from educational institutions, but above all creating a generation who would speak one language, the state's official language of Pan-Arabism. [1]

Briefly, Pan-Arabism is the belief that the Arabs of the Middle East, North Africa, and the Sudan are one people, divided into so many states only because Western imperialism, in an elaborate plot to plunder their wealth and extend its hegemony over them, had decided that it was in its best interest to keep the Arabs divided. This division has to end. Arab oil has to be shared by all. And Arabs should be able to live and work in whatever part of the Arab world they choose. To turn words into deeds, the Ba'ath Party (which controls Iraq since 1967) abolished all borders among Arab states in the maps it now put out; it also gave all Arabs the same rights the Iraqi people had; more important, it made Pan-Arabism its ultimate goal, which still is despite the fact that all the many efforts at unity by Iraq had gone nowhere.

But to make an entire nation speak the state's language, think according to its Pan-Arab ideology, more effort was needed than just politicizing and nationalizing schools. More than half of the nation's population could not read or write. These were mainly older people, scattered in hundreds of small villages all across the country, villages with no running water, electricity, or roads connecting them to the cities. Now the challenge was how to give these people some very, very basic education. Simultaneously the state embarked on an ambitious program to, on the one hand, extend roads, electricity, and running water to these villages, and, on the other, open up schools. Because these people were mainly farmers who needed their children to work in the fields during the day, the schools had to open in the evening. The aim, at least on the surface, was to teach these people basic skills in reading, writing, and arithmetic. But the real aim was entirely political. After all, the state wanted to bring about a revolution in the way people thought and dealt with the government. So while the farmers were learning how to write their names, how to multiply, add, divide, and subtract figures, they were also learning about Pan-Arabism, about imperialism, about loyalty to the state, about the leader. The exercises on the surface were about how to say this or that, how to write this or that, but on a deeper level they were about political indoctrination. All learning activities, for example, involved in one way or another making some very positive statements about the state's ultimate texts, that is, the president of the county (then Ahamd Hassan al-Bakr) and his vice-president (then Saddam Hussein). Other texts included a barrage of proclamations, denunciations, adulations, among other things, written all over school walls, in support of the state and its twin leaders. There were also daily classes in which a party official would more directly tell these people about the party and its goals and why it was necessary for all to join. But this process of indoctrination through the guise of education did not stop when the students went home; the state had insured that it would go on there as well, thanks to all the free television sets that the government had distributed. When they went home, these people could hardly take their eyes off this novelty: they could see every night how generous, courageous, benevolent, and intelligent the twin leaders were; how strong the country's army was; how artificial all the borders dividing Arab countries were; how patriotic it was to join the Arab Ba'ath Party. Whereas in the past most of these people had not had the slightest idea who their president was, let alone what their government was all

about, now they felt they knew "the leader and his deputy" first hand. They would see them acting human: visiting with friends and families, barbecuing, shopping, showing compassion, or just enjoying a relaxing day in the country. They would also see them acting as leaders: receiving heads of state and foreign diplomats, though not hearing the words they would exchange; inspecting an industrial or agricultural project; viewing an army parade; or signing a decree.

Now let me be clear about this: indoctrination through education was not offered as an option; it was a mandate. Everyone, male and female, not younger than six, not older than fifty, had to attend some type of school. To insure that, the army, the state's massive secret police, and the Party's numerous political and cultural organizations were brought in to keep a watch. Punishment for skipping school would start with an admonishment from a Party official. If it did not stop, then would come an interrogation by the secret police, which would be held in a basement full of tools of torture. Next would come the army to take the person away and possibly confiscate his/her property as a punishment and deterrence.

So this is the context within which the Iraqi state in the late 1960s set out to bring about a revolution in education or more precisely a revolution in the relationship between the state and the people. This was the mother of all invasions, for the state was not simply trying to occupy all private spaces; more important, as Kenan Makiya has meticulously documented, it was trying to eliminate them. Television brought the state inside the home. Together with school, they turned the home into a place where state ideology acquired a monopoly on discussion, where the fear of torture by the secret police insured that there was no dissent, and where family members lost trust in one another, as the state now decreed that it was a patriotic duty for one to spy on his/her family.

But to the outside world this systematic and at times ruthless campaign to control and silence a people was seen as a genuine effort by a government to educate its people. As far as the United Nations and others were concerned, it was just that, a commendable undertaking to eliminate illiteracy and backwardness--a point, incidentally, that was also made by the Egyptian feminist Nawal al-Saadawi. [2]

Now, you might ask, how all this controlling affected the teaching of grammar? In two ways. During Ahmad Hassan al-Bakr's presidency, which lasted from 1968 to 1973, the state embarked on a vigorous campaign to promote classical Arabic, that is, the Arabic of the Koran, which is very different from the dozen or so Arabic dialects spoken in the Arab world. Al-Bakr himself was a lover of classical Arabic; he, unlike Saddam Hussein, came from a prominent well-to-do tribe which had nothing but disdain for spoken Arabic. For him, classical Arabic was pure, beautiful, correct, and orderly; spoken Arabic, by contrast, was impure, ugly, incorrect, and disorderly. Classical Arabic represented a glorious past, the time when the Arabs were strong and united and when their empire stretched all the way to Spain. Spoken Arabic, by contrast, represented a present marked by defeat and paralysis, a time when the Arabs were in disarray and retreat. And so for al-Bakr there was no question which Arabic was superior and which was inferior. It was time to return to classical Arabic, and he pushed for that with such a fanfare that almost overnight a standard of correctness was developed; and because it was sanctioned by him, that is, by the man at the top, it carried with it an authority that no one would dare to challenge, at least not as long as he was in power. After all, he was constructed not just as an all powerful leader, but also as "The Great Father," one that knew it all, one who had to be obeyed. The end result was that "Say it this way; don't say it that way" became the dictum of the day as schools, radios and television stations, and newspapers now gave daily lessons on the virtues and benefits of writing and speaking grammatically--or more precisely writing and speaking in ways demanded by the dictatorship.

But the change of guard in 1973 brought with it a dramatic change in attitude toward grammatical correctness. That year Ahmad

7

Hassan al-Bakr in a bloodless coup was replaced by his deputy Saddam Hussein, the poor Bakr was even made to announce his "retirement for health reasons" on television. As life-size portraits of Saddam started replacing Bakr's, change became inevitable. Right from the start, the new leader began using language very differently from his predecessor; it was unmistakably the language that the upper class Bakr had frowned upon as ungrammatical, provincial, and impure. But it was a language that the population at large, including the new dictator, felt native to; it was the language of their dreams, aspirations, and frustrations, containing and expressing the very essence of their being. By contrast, Bakr's version came to be seen as artificial and restrictive, privileging the upper land-owning class which the new dictator was swiftly moving against. In no time all lessons about correctness that were the hallmark of the previous dictator started to disappear from radio and television, schools and newspapers. They were replaced with nightly poetry recitals, literary and political discussions, dramatic performances, and songs--all in the very language that only years before the state had considered bad, ugly, and ungrammatical.

Saddam's purpose of course was not a whole lot different from Bakr's. Both used grammar politically: Bakr promoting a standard of grammatical correctness based solely on Koranic Arabic and upper class usage of it, Saddam promoting a non-standard version that more or less did away with grammatical correctness.

1 Kanan Makiya, Republic of Fear (Berkely: U of California P, 1989), 171-72.

2 See Flan Hazelton,ed., Iran Since the Gulf War (London: Zed P, 1994). This book contains an excellent collection of essays that discuss the impact Saddam's dictatorship has had on Iraq's culture and society. What is so interesting about the collection is that all the contributors are Iraqis who know their subjects first hand.

(Still) Trying to Find an Answer to the Problem of 'Error' in Writing

William McCleary
Livonia, NY

If it can be said that there was a single motivating event for this paper, it may have been an e-mail message I received from a high-ranking administrator at my college. In it, the administrator spelled "a lot" as one word. Although this could have been an accident, I fell to fantasizing about how many times this error had been corrected by the writer's former English teachers. Ten times? Twenty times? Whatever the real number was, why didn't it take? Spelling "a lot" as two words seems like such a simple thing to learn.

Whether or not a common little error like "a lot" justified my dismay, it was not a new feeling. Perhaps the most traumatic incident occurred when I was reading through a collection of student essays, fourth grade through eleventh grade, that my wife was using to teach holistic scoring to public school teachers. What struck me was that the same errors occurred at every grade level. Comma splices, fragments, antecedent problems, misspellings of the same old words like separate, allowed, laid, and said, and on and on. Never before had the collective failure of English teachers to teach one of the basic subjects they are responsible for been laid out so clearly. I suddenly got a vision of English teachers marking all those errors year after year, explaining the same concepts over and over, and assigning exercises that were supposed to help students correct the errors but didn't. As one of the people who did that, I was overwhelmed by a sense of futility. All that work for what seemed to be so little impact.

We could multiply these examples and call upon much research to show that much if not most instruction in what we generally call "correct usage" has been ineffective. But I don't think there's much argument about it. Let's consider, instead, why efforts to teach correct usage have generally been unsuccessful. The theme of this conference is "explicit teaching of language structures," and here is a clear example of the failure of such explicit teaching. I might dispute the claim that teaching large language structures such as organization and genres is ineffective, but it seems that the explicit teaching of small language structures such as spelling, vocabulary, and usage doesn't work very well, at least not as it is usually done.

Why doesn't it work? Everyone has a favorite list of reasons. One reason on my list is that there are too many rules and structures for anyone to learn them all through explicit teaching. Most of them must be learned implicitly through wide-ranging reading and writing and through growing up around people who use the socially prestigious dialect.

The corollary to this problem of too many rules to learn is that the people who must learn them in some kind of remedial program tend to be those who have the most to learn and, often, are the least able to do so. It's not surprising, then, that the "deeply remedial" students, by whatever euphemism one chooses to call them, are most at risk of not succeeding in college. They must try to learn explicitly what the other students learned implicitly, a nearly impossible task. Also, as Rei Noguchi says in his book *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing*, "It stands to reason that the more conventions that have to be taught, the less attention that each particular convention receives, and eventually, the less each is learned."

A second reason the usual methods of teaching correct language structures are ineffective is explained by Mina Shaughnessy in *Errors and Expectations*. The gist of her argument is that teachers incorrectly diagnose the roots of errors. Shaughnessy points out that students have a logic behind most of their errors, and teachers must be able to figure out

that logic in order to correct it. This is not always easy to do, nor does it even occur to most teachers that such a step is necessary. To illustrate this principle to my own students--all of them pre-service English teachers--I point out that many members of the class, usually close to half, put their periods and commas outside of the quotation marks. Now, I say, I'm telling all of you who do that that it's wrong. Periods and commas always go inside quotation marks. Then, without asking students the logic behind their punctuation, I illustrate the rule, and I reiterate the rule every time a paper is due. At the end of the semester we find that only a few who made that error have changed their ways. This, I say, shows how hard it is to change even the simplest language habit especially if you don't know the reasoning behind that habit.

Then there's a third reason that our teaching is ineffective, and that is that our exercises are explained in terms of grammar, and the grammar used is inadequate and sometimes incorrect in the first place, and in the second place too elaborate to be a good teaching tool. We need a pedagogical grammar but we teach something else. This is, for example, one of the reasons given by Ed Vavra in his book, Teaching Grammar as a Liberal Art. Vavra makes the point that both traditional grammar and the modern scientific grammars are not up to the job. Not only are both more elaborate than necessary, but traditional grammar has inaccuracies and scientific grammars were never designed to be teaching tools.

Finally, we come to my main point for today, which is that our teaching of usage has deteriorated to the point that many of our colleagues refer to it as drill-and-kill. The drills kill interest in English by being required of students who don't need them and by being boring besides. In theory, we could get rid of drill-and-kill by assigning each exercise only to the students who make the particular error that it covers. This would be a large problem in logistics but not impossible. However, even if we did that, the exercises would often not be up to the job, and they therefore would not help students to overcome their errors.

While various reasons have been given to explain why the exercises don't work, I'm going to discuss them collectively by referring to an article by Muriel Harris and Katherine Rowan on the application of concept learning, an aspect of cognitive psychology, to learning correct usage. The article appeared in the Fall, 1989, issue of *Journal of Basic Writing*. Harris and Rowan give at least four problems with most exercises, and to those I'll add a couple more that I've run across while trying to carry out the advice given in their article. For this discussion I want to use as my example the exercises on subject-verb agreement in your handout, which I took from the third edition of a book entitled *College Writing Skills* by John Langen. I chose this example not because it's worse than the rest but because it's typical. It also must be considered adequate by many teachers since Langen's book is in the third edition. I should add that in addition to the exercises you have here the lesson includes three exercises that Langen calls review tests.

In the first place, Harris and Rowan say, the theory of concept learning requires that the lesson include any background knowledge necessary for students to understand the concept to be learned. For the example at hand, this would require that Langen explain or re-explain the grammatical terms he uses, such as subject and verb, singular and plural, prepositional phrase, and indefinite pronouns. You can see that he does define singular and plural in the parentheses next to the terms when they are first introduced--although the definitions are vastly oversimplified; for instance, the definitions don't cover mass nouns. He also tries to get around the need to define indefinite pronoun by listing all of the common ones and the problem of applying the concepts of singular and plural as defined in the introduction by simply saying that all indefinite pronouns except "both" take the singular verb. However, according to Harris and Rowan, even if we accept his oversimplifications as a worthy attempt to avoid grammatical jargon, he should have re-explained subject and verb and prepositional phrase if he's going to use these words and make them the keys to correct agreement. True, these terms are covered elsewhere in the

book, but there's no guarantee that teachers will have assigned the relevant material or that students will remember it. In Langen's book, subject and verb are explained forty pages before this lesson on subject-verb agreement; that's a long gap between explanation and this application. He does, of course, give examples that might jog students' memories, but to use such important terms without a greater effort to ensure that students understand them may instead ensure that students will fail to understand the lesson. If students can't find the subject and verb, they can't follow the rest of the directions.

In the second place, Harris and Rowan say, traditional exercises are inadequate because the concept to be learned is often not adequately defined. A concept may be oversimplified or the textbook writer may not list all of the attributes critical to understanding the concept, while at the same time perhaps listing attributes that are not necessary or asking students to use criteria that are variables and not critical attributes. In this case, the concept to be defined is subject/verb agreement. We have a rule that subjects and verbs must agree in number, but what are the attributes that make up this agreement? In other words, what are the attributes that give the subject and verb number? Are they the forms of the subjects and verbs or are they something else? Does the attribute that makes a subject singular or plural lie in the head noun alone or in the entire subject? And do the attributes that make up number in nouns also make up number in pronouns? You will note that Langen's introductory explanation of the rule does not answer such questions. Instead, he goes right to four situations in which he says that students often make mistakes: "When words come between the subject and verb"; "When a verb comes before the subject"; "With compound subjects"; and "With indefinite pronouns." Now, Harris and Rowan say that limiting a lesson to those areas of a concept in which students make errors is a fine idea, but we can see that there are some puzzling aspects to Langen's brief lessons. Note, first of all, that, he implies in the first exercise that grammar alone determines whether a subject and verb are singular or plural and that only the head noun counts as the subject. These are untenable rules, for structure is a variable, not a critical attribute. In a sentence like "Two cents is the price of a gumball," structure says plural but common sense says singular. Also, the lesson begins with the rule that "words that come between the subject and the verb do not change subject-verb agreement, but the only kind of intervening structure he gives examples of is the preposition phrase, and the easiest kind of preposition phrase to recognize, at that. What about appositives or relative clauses? Even harder to deal with, according to Brock Haussaman, in a book I will discuss in a minute, are intervening phrase that begin with "as well as" or "in addition to." That grammar is a variable and not an attribute can also be seen in the lessons on compound subjects and indefinite nouns. Both items in a compound subject can be singular and yet they count as plural, and all indefinite articles count as singular, as we might expect of words in a singular form, except the mysterious case of "both," which has singular form but counts as plural. And these are not the only problems, but time prevents me from continuing.

We can see, then, several reasons why these exercises don't work. Not only are those students most likely to need such exercises least likely to have a sound grasp on such background information as subjects, verbs, and prepositional phrases, but the rules are not reliable, depending sometimes on meaning and sometimes on structure but without any reliable to guide to which is which. The rules sound sensible to English teachers, but that's because we have very little need for reliable rules. We learned almost everything we needed to know about subject-verb agreement implicitly and have only a little need for explicit learning. Furthermore, we get exposed to the rules in every class we teach and all through our time of grading papers, year after year. In other words, we have fewer rules to learn and vastly more opportunities for learning than any student. No wonder it all seems to easy to us.

Why don't textbook writers improve their definitions of the concepts they teach? There

are probably several reasons, beginning with the fact that textbook writers who want to make money write what teachers want to buy, not what they know to be the truth. But a second reason is that there has until recently been little systematic study of grammatical concepts as they relate to correct usage. Textbook authors either imitate previous books or rely on their own unscientific intuitions as to the nature of concepts for there were few studies of the true nature of the concepts. Fortunately, however, we now have at good start at remedying this problem with Brock Haussaman's book that I mentioned above, *Revising the Rules: Traditional Grammar and Modern Linguistics*. Haussaman has made a detailed study of many concepts behind errors in usage. In the cases of subject-verb agreement, he points out that the subject is so complex that someone has written a whole book on it. According to Haussaman, Wallis Reid, author of *Verb and Noun Number in English: A Functional Explanation*, takes the position "that the number of the subject and the number of the verb are two separate features that each play a role in communication." The gist of Reid's theory is that meaning, not grammar, determines agreement. In our present terms, meaning would be the actual critical attribute. If the writer means plural, then the subject is plural, regardless of its structure. I kind of like Reid's idea. Using a grammar-based rule instead of meaning is often counter-intuitive and makes the rules more difficult to learn than they should be. For instance, in cases where the singular and plural forms are semantically identical, why should anyone care whether the writer chooses to make the verb singular or plural? Note #2 on page 1 of the Langen handout, where "costs" is interchangeable with its singular form. Is it really necessary to change the verb to singular if we use "cost" instead of "costs"? I don't think so. Students who know their usage will probably opt for structural agreement, but Haussaman criticizes such a view in these words: "Such a process may help a student meet the obligations of traditional grammar in the narrowest sense, but it is not an effective step toward the higher goal of encouraging students to look hard at the meaning they are creating for the reader" (69).

Harris and Rowan's third principle is that the examples used by most authors need to be much more extensive than they usually are. Ideally, they should exemplify all of the common problems students will encounter, and they should be drawn from actual student sentences containing the errors, not written by the textbook author. Furthermore, examples should come in pairs with one correct example and one incorrect. To the common objection that many teachers don't want students to see incorrect sentences for fear that they will internalize the wrong version, the authors answer that the evidence from concept learning does not support such a notion. Also, the authors say that every pair of correct and incorrect examples should be followed by an explanation that will point out the critical attributes of the concept that are being used to discriminate between the two kinds.

From the explanations and the critical attributes, then, the writer of the lesson should develop a list of questions for students to ask themselves as they try to figure out the correct answer to a new problem. These should then be used in what Harris and Rowan call "inquisatory practice," in which students are given some practice sentences, are told to apply the questions systematically, and then are given feedback. Feedback is particularly important. We might note from personal experience that if students aren't given feedback within the printed exercise, they depend on the teacher to give the feedback, and this leads to the teacher assigning the exercise to the whole class so as to give this feedback only once. Furthermore, teacher-based feedback is often so delayed that students have forgotten the lesson. Feedback within the lesson allows the lesson to be somewhat self-teaching. Haussaman, I might note, also advocates that students be taught to ask themselves a sequence of questions in order to figure out the best agreement to use.

We can see that Langen, like most authors, has partially fulfilled these guidelines. He does have examples, and some of the examples are explained, though most are not. But there are no incorrect examples and

therefore no pairs for students to compare. Langen also suggests some questions for students to ask themselves, but he's not very systematic about it. Students would not be likely to learn to ask themselves a systematic set of questions. Next, he gives no feedback on the exercises, no discussion of the answers, not even a list of correct answers. Furthermore, there are only five practice sentences for each section, some of which are highly unlikely to reflect errors actually made by native speakers of English. Does anyone really expect that this tiny bit of practice is going to correct such a deep-seated problem as subject-verb agreement, if indeed a student has the problem?

Finally, Harris and Rowan also support better exercises than the usual isolated sentences in which students are to underline the correct answer or fill-in-the-blanks. In fact, the sample given in their article has no such fill-in-the-blank exercises, although in both of the exercises they do include students need do no more than add punctuation to a paragraph. I would think that an exercise requiring complete rewriting of a paragraph would be even better as a replacement or a supplement.

If Harris and Rowan are right about their idea of applying the principles of concept learning to English usage, this would substantially change how we work on usage in composition classes. We would have a bank of these fairly elaborate lessons, and after carefully identifying the sources of errors made by individual students, we would select the appropriate lessons for each student. Where would we get this bank of lessons? There's the rub, for while some commercially published materials are better than others, none that I have seen--or that Harris and Rowan saw in the books they examined--fully meet the requirements. And even if we were to borrow and reproduce the best lessons from various materials, most would still be far from great--to say nothing of getting us in trouble for copyright violations.

The answer would seem to be fairly obvious. Why don't teachers write their own lessons? If an individual were to write several lessons a year, over the years that teacher would build up a bank of lessons to be administered to individual students for their individual problems. Even better, a group of teachers could go together and create the needed bank of lessons more quickly.

This seemed such a simple idea that I had my students in the teacher-prep program try it. My idea was that each student in the class could create one lesson and then everyone could share lessons. That way, everyone could begin their teaching careers with a small bank of lessons already prepared. It will probably not surprise you to find out that this procedure didn't work very well. The biggest trouble was to find really good explanations of the concepts to be covered. Even though they were English majors, students had very little formal knowledge of the concepts, and the explanations that they found in the existing handbooks generally turned out to be less than satisfactory. In fact, when students wrote questions for the more difficult aspects of a concept and then tried to write the answers as well, they often got the wrong answers to their own questions. We forget, I think, how little that new teachers know about these things and how slavishly they must therefore depend on teachers' manuals to give them the answers and to teach them the concepts. I can remember when I started teaching ninth grade back in 1961. It took me fully two years to figure out what a dangling participle was and the official way to correct it. Until then, I just told students the answers given in the teachers' manual. (It is, by the way, one of the ironies of teaching that new teachers learn grammar as much from the answer book as from the textbook; yet we don't give an answer book to the students so that they can do likewise.)

As my students worked on creating lessons, they asked, rather peevishly, why we didn't contact Harris and Rowan to get some models of their lessons and see more precisely how it should be done. There is a model in their article, but because of space limitations it's an abbreviated one. I also wrote my own model for them, but it was on a subject that students considered so esoteric that it didn't

count. So I sent an e-mail to Mickey Harris and asked how extensively she and Katherine Rowan had tested their model and if she would share some of their lessons. Well, she confessed that they haven't tested the model at all and have written no lessons. However, Rowan wrote later to point out the researchers from whom they drew their model had often and successfully used grammatical concepts for lessons. Of course, these lessons probably wouldn't be appropriate for use in actual classes.

Despite this news--really not all that unusual in the world of publish or perish--I continue to ask students to write these lessons, for it seems the most practical way for them to learn to recognize weaknesses in lessons written by others. I have also begun to require them to add some paragraph-style exercises to the lessons such as sentence combining, controlled composition, and the like. In other words, we will try to write some lessons that we can try out. Perhaps we can even do some teacher research, since that seems to be the "in" thing these days. Maybe at some point we will come up with a successful model.

That's why I say in my title that we are still trying to find an answer to the problem of error in writing. This model looks promising, especially now that we have Brock Haussaman's book to help us figure out the true nature of the concepts we are trying to teach and pedagogical grammars such as Noguchi's and Vavra's to help us teach the background information. However, we are still a long way from having something that will truly work.

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Grammar and Literacy: Embedding Outside Sources in Text

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The Problem

In the last ten years or so, work by DeBeaugrande (1984), Noguchi (1992), and Kenkel and Yates (1992) has argued that native speakers can operationalize their tacit grammatical knowledge and apply it in an effort to resolve persistent errors in written usage, such as fragments, run-ons, and subject-verb agreement. Kolln (1991) demonstrates that this tacit knowledge or "sentence sense" can be exploited by students as part of strategies to improve written style. In this paper, however, we discuss a persistent language problem in freshman writing for which our students have no pertinent sentence sense, namely, the embedding of outside sources into text -- a task for which they lack the needed language knowledge and skill. The rhetorical strategies and language structures involved in this task are relatively rare in spoken language; indeed, their presence usually indicates high levels of literacy reflecting either extensive reading or explicit instruction.

It is natural, then, that our students struggle with incorporating outside material in their text as they will have had little relevant exposure in their reading nor will they have had occasion to use outside materials in much of their writing.

The rhetorical side of the issue has already been the focus of research. Kantz (1990), for example, in an excellent discussion of student use of outside sources, describes the reading and writing strategies of the typical college underclassman enrolled in a writing from sources course. She suggests that this typical student is proficient at reading and writing narrative. Moreover, she believes that this typical student controls an impressive range of study and writing skills including reading for the main idea, choosing relevant source material for her work, and skilled summarizing and paraphrasing. However, such students cannot overcome the difficulty they experience in writing papers based on outside sources. These students, according to Kantz, do not establish enough rhetorical distance from their sources. They tend to confuse a narration of their research reading with a genuine argument. In so doing, they don't differentiate the rhetorical stance of their sources from their own purpose. These students do not analyze their source material to find information which they can use to support their own point of view. Kantz suggests a hierarchy of the writing difficulties which these students confront.

> It is usually easier to write a paper that uses all of only one short source on a familiar topic than to write a paper that selects material from many long sources on a topic that one must learn as one reads and writes. It is easier to quote than to paraphrase, and it is easier to build the paraphrases, without comment or with random comments, into a description of what one found than it is to use them as evidence in an original argument. It is easier to use whatever one likes, or everything one finds, than to formally select, evaluate, and interpret material. It is easier to use the structure and purpose of a source as the basis for one's paper than it is to create a structure or an original purpose. (pp. 75-76)

In this view, the typical student sees outside material as a mass of information to be directly incorporated in the student's writing. It is to be expected, then, that these papers resemble reports more than arguments.

Kantz stresses that more incisive, purposeful reading strategies are needed to resolve these writing problems. We agree, but feel that increased rhetorical awareness, while

necessary, is not sufficient. In our samples of student writing, we have texts which reveal that the writer is certainly aware of (what we call) her rhetorical obligation, but is unable to meet it because she lacks control of the lexical items and syntactic structure necessary for integrating material from outside sources into her text.

We repeat that it is not surprising that the typical underclassman would encounter difficulties with these structures peculiar to higher forms of literacy. Perera (1986), in a summary of the language difficulties encountered by children as they learn to write, identifies vocabulary and sentence structures which school children do not control. Perera believes that this lack of control reveals that children do not recognize that writing is different from speaking. Perrera observes that structures which give children difficulty include certain adverbial clauses, ellipsis, and what she calls heavy subject NPs, in other words, NPs that function as subjects that have modification or are dependent clauses. These structures rarely occur in the spoken language. Rather, they occur almost exclusively in the written language. Perera speculates that only children who have been exposed to a lot of reading use such forms in their own writing. Similarly, typical first year college students have difficulties with the language needed to embed outside sources into text because they have not been exposed to large amounts of academic reading.

If we are correct that only students with extensive reading experience control advanced literacy structures and if we are correct in assuming that many of our students have not had the relevant academic reading experience, then teachers are dealing with more than merely recognizing differences between spoken and written language. In fact, we are claiming that typical students have a deficit in their knowledge of the relevant grammatical structures and that this deficit needs to be met by appropriate pedagogical intervention.

Of course, as Kantz' work makes clear, it would be simplistic to suggest that student problems in integrating outside texts into their writing are strictly grammatical. The problem has interdependent grammatical and rhetorical elements. However, although rhetorical and language knowledge is interdependent in texts, it is useful to analyze the rhetorical and language knowledge needed to integrate cited material skillfully into text. From a rhetorical perspective, writers need to distinguish between the perspective and purpose of the cited source and their own. Lack of this recognition is reflected in student writing where outside material is directly incorporated into the text in a (quasi) plagiaristic fashion and in writing where cited material has no prefatory or post comment. However, this rhetorical awareness is not sufficient for producing appropriate text. To integrate outside material into their texts successfully, students must not only recognize the rhetorical obligation to distinguish between outside text and their own, but they also must control the appropriate grammatical structures. These include control of specific lexical items, namely, signal verbs such as "state," "argue," "emphasize," and "conclude." Of course, use of inappropriate signal verbs frequently co-occurs with errors in direct and indirect speech, which include problems with reference relations, the grammar of complementizers, and tense choice. Finally, writers must control the grammar associated with prepositional phrases such as "according to X" and "In X's book," which are used to topicalize information. Often associated with student use of these topicalized structures are errors in subject grammar, relative clauses, and reference relations between a topicalized antecedent and its anaphor.

We emphasize that the rhetorical and language problems referred to above are non-separable in practice. Students are unlikely to develop the needed language skills if they are unaware of the rhetorical necessity of distinguishing between their texts and that of the cited material. However, we believe that recognition of the rhetorical imperative is not sufficient in itself to solve the students' writing problem. Indeed, students who understand the rhetorical issue but who lack control of the corresponding language structures will still write non-felicitous texts. In sum, our general

contention is that development of advanced literacy skills in our students involves a linguistic as well as a rhetorical component.

In the remainder of this paper, in order to understand and better respond to the complex language challenge confronting our students, we first situate student writers within a two stage developmental sequence for embedding outside sources into text. Second, we analyze examples of student writing, illustrating how types of error reflect students' stages of knowledge and skill development. Third, we discuss possible pedagogical responses to these problems by critically reviewing several handbooks and discussing the extent to which they provide useful guidelines for integrating outside sources. Finally, we suggest a straightforward pedagogy to supplement handbooks

DISCUSSION

We surveyed approximately 50 papers drawn from student populations from Eastern Kentucky University and Central Missouri State University enrolled in writing from sources courses. Through the significant difficulties that these writers experienced with embedding outside sources into their texts, we discerned a two stage developmental sequence reflecting students' growing rhetorical awareness and the developing language knowledge and skill to act on that awareness. Stage one describes a stage where the writer does not recognize the rhetorical problem, namely, the need to distinguish the perspective and purpose of the source text from the perspective and purpose of the writer. This stage itself can be characterized by two writing problems. Problem A refers to student writing revealing that the student makes no distinction between her text and the source; in other words, Problem A describes outright plagiarism. In these texts, the student indicates no source, uses no signal expressions, uses no quotation marks, and includes no prefatory or post comment. Problem B of Stage One refers to texts where the writer uses quotation marks or cites the source but is still insufficiently aware of the need to distinguish between her text and the source through use of signal expressions and prefatory and post comments. We refer to such citations as "parachuted." Problem B of Stage One, then, describes a student who is beginning to develop the needed rhetorical awareness but who does not yet have sufficient knowledge and confidence in the lexical and syntactic resources needed to show the rhetorical relation.

Stage Two describes a student who has acknowledged her rhetorical obligations but who nonetheless fails to meet them. Generally speaking, the difference between a Stage One student and a Stage Two student is that in Stage Two, the student attempts to fulfill her rhetorical obligations but does so inappropriately. This stage includes four problems pertinent to embedding outside sources typical of novice writers: use of inappropriate prefatory and post comments, use of inappropriate signal words, lack of control of the grammar and conventions of direct and indirect speech, and lack of control of the grammar of topicalization.

Inappropriate prefatory or post comments are typical of students who understand the need to avoid parachuted citations but lack either an adequate understanding of their topic or sufficient control of the content and functional vocabulary needed to develop their discussion clearly. The obstacles presented by a limited knowledge base, of course, are not peculiar to the problem of integrating outside material. However, the use of appropriate signal words to introduce citations certainly is. At an earlier period in Level 2, the student will tend to draw on words common to the spoken language such as "say," "tell," and "goes." Later, she uses signal words more appropriate to writing such as "state," "oppose," and "conclude," but still may have difficulty with the grammar and conventions of direct and indirect speech requiring her to decide whether or not to use a complementizer, to choose the appropriate tense, and to control punctuation conventions. The grammar of topicalization also presents considerable problems to student writers. Use of topicalizing phrases such as "according to X" raises problems of reference and subject grammar.

The above brief description of student difficulties indicates that we are dealing with issues of literacy for which our students' language sense cannot help them. They do not have the needed linguistic knowledge to deal with them. Therefore, a responsibility of writing from sources courses must be to offer explicit instruction on both the rhetorical and language issues involved in embedding outside sources into text. In general, the problems which student writers have in skillfully integrating outside material into their own discussions arise from their lack of familiarity with the written language. For example, the conventions of spoken discourse require neither prefatory or post comments; a small number of signal words suffices for ordinary instances of direct or indirect speech as the ordinarily rich spoken discourse context will provide the listener with information to make appropriate inferences; topicalization presents few problems to speakers and hearers as fragments are appropriate in speech and reference is more easily determined within the context of the speech interaction.

DATA ANALYSIS

The student difficulties mentioned above are more clearly illustrated by the examples presented below drawn from student writing.[1] For ease of reference, we summarize the two points in the developmental process and the problems that characterize each.

The skill level that we designate as Level 1 reflects a lack of recognition of the writer's rhetorical obligation to her readers. We perceive two typical problems in this level. One is outright plagiarism; in other words, the writer makes no distinction between the source text and her own, as illustrated in (1) below.

> (1) For three years the spotted owl has been a thorn in the sides of the loggers when it comes to the battle over National Forests, which until recently, they had been allowed to log as much as they desired. Some of the public land is what is known as old forest growth. The owls need these forests in order to survive, so under the Endangered Species Act, the government is responsible for protecting these birds' habitat. (5 April 1993 *Newsweek*: 53). Since 1991, the courts have banned logging on millions of acres in 17 National Forests and 5 Bureau of Land

Proposed Developmental Sequence for Embedding Outside Sources

Level 1 - Lack of recognition of rhetorical obligation: plagiarism.
- **Problem IA** - outright plagiarism; no distinction between source text and writer's text.
- **Problem IB** - signaling of distinction between source text and writer's text with quotation marks or by paraphrase; lack of prefatory or post comment, that is, parachuted citations.

Level 2 - acknowledgment of rhetorical obligations but failure to meet them due to inadequate linguistic knowledge and skill.
- **Problem 2A** - use of inappropriate signal words.
- **Problem 2B** - lack of control of the grammar and conventions of direct and indirect speech
- **Problem 2C** - use of inappropriate prefatory or post comments.
- **Problem 2D** - lack of control of the grammar of topicalization

Table 1

Management parcels in Northern California, Oregon, and Washington (5 April 1993: 53).

The timber workers are changing the terms of the debate and rattling the old bones of past allegiances. Many rank-and-file forest and mill-workers are still angered at "extreme" environmentalists and harbor a deep resentment of greens who drove spikes into trees in order to prevent cutting. They feel that not only were they victims of the spotted owl but of the environmentalists as well.

What marks this example as Level 1 is that in spite of the fact that there are only two citations and no quotations marks, three of the seven sentences are exact copies, three are near exact copies, and one, the last , is so badly copied that its intended meaning is obscured. In this text, there is certainly no distinction between the stance of the source and that of the writer.

The other problem typical of Level 1 is the lack of signaling phrases to mark a distinction between the source text and the writer's text. Another feature of this lack of rhetorical awareness is the absence of any prefatory or follow up comment to the citation. We call such citations "parachuted citations." In both (2) and (3) below, the writer signals the reader that the information comes from an outside source, but does not establish a relation between that source and her own text. It is as if the citation were "parachuted" into the text, with no explicit indication to the reader as to how it furthers the writer's purpose.

(2) Anti smoking advocates say the evidence undermines the industry's libertarian argument that smoking is an individual choice involving individual risk. 'Driving without a seat belt is a lot more dangerous than secondhand smoke, but people think it's their right to go through the windshield,' says Stanton Glantz, a cardiovascular specialist at the University of California at San Francisco. 'Passive smoking is not a voluntary risk."

(3) Where do children get these guns and why? Youth can buy, borrow or even rent these guns easily. They can go to the black market on a street corner or to someone's house where arsenals are for sale. Many are even obtained in their own homes. "Street gangs are a major source of weapons used by kids" (*Newsweek*, March 1992, 25). Good weapons are expensive and drug money is fast.

There are writers who produce partial parachuted citations as in (4) below, where there is an introduction to the citation but no follow-up comment.

(4) On the best reasons for censorship was applied in 1913 by Judge Curtis Bok. Bok stated that censorship is permitted, "only where there is reasonable and demonstrable cause to believe that a crime or misdemeanor has been committed or [is] about to be committed as a result of the publication and distribution of the writing in question : The opinion of anyone that a tendency thereto exists or that such a result is self-evident is insufficient and irrelevant. The causal connection between the book and the criminal behavior must appear beyond the shadow of a doubt." (CQ Feb 1993 p. 154)

Why would people want to take knowledge away from our society? One major reason in the past . . .

The source of Level 1 writing problems is the lack of student awareness of her rhetorical need to differentiate the purpose of the source text from her own. In so doing, the writer will foreground her own argumentation while keeping the argumentative direction of her source in the background. We believe that there are student writers who fully understand this imperative but are still unable to write felicitous text due primarily to deficits in their linguistic knowledge and skill. In fact, of the four types of Level 2 problems that we identify, three are linguistic in nature. We feel that students who are unaware of the rhetorical issues are likely not to notice their linguistic difficulties, which arise from student confusion of speech and writing.

The four problems typical of Level 2 all arise from a lack of experience with academic reading and writing. Students tend to rely on signal words appropriate to speech, for instance, "say" or "goes" instead of "argue" or "contend." Frequently associated with use of inappropriate signal verbs is confusion between direct and indirect speech. Students often don't know the difference between direct and indirect speech. Their confusion is a result of the optionality of the COMP position in sentences such as the following.

19

(5) John said that I'm coming.
(6) John said I'm coming.
(7) John said, "I'm coming."

In speech, (5) is ambiguous, having the interpretation of both (5) and (7). It is the presence of COMP that renders (5) unambiguous. On the basis of sentences such as (8) and (9) below, students tend to think that the presence or absence of COMP does not affect meaning.

(8) Harry believes that the earth is flat.
(9) Harry believes the earth is flat.

Use of inappropriate prefatory or post comments comes from student extension of the rich context of spoken interactions to the more constrained contexts common to written communication. The lack of control of the grammar of topicalization also can be attributed to the overgeneralization of the norms of speech to writing. For example, topicalized structures such as "according to Newt, he believes" or "Newt, he believes" are common in speech and hearers do not have difficulty in determining the intended reference of the pronoun "he" because of the richness of the immediate context. However, in writing, the reference is intolerably ambiguous.

Through the examples drawn from student writing that we present below, we support our contention that even students who understand the rhetorical imperatives involved in writing from sources can still be unable to write acceptable texts due to deficits in linguistic knowledge and skill.

Examples (10) (11) and (12) illustrate Problems 2A and 2B. These show that students overgeneralize the conventions of speech into writing by using spoken language signal verbs and lack awareness of the conventions of direct and indirect speech.

(10) . . . [Perrault] is also known for changing his stories to be acceptable to the French court. In the beginning of his story **he talks** of Cinderella's father remarrying a woman with two children and that is how Cinderella ended up with the two stepsisters who treat her badly.

(11) Regarding the treatment Columbus gave the Indians in return Sherwood **says that** when some Indians came aboard Columbus' flagship, "he entertained them with great honor."

(12) Shannon Brownlee from the *U.S. News and World Report* **stated that**, "In at least two dozen legal battles, the courts . . ."

Example (13) given below is interesting because even though the writer's syntactic control is deficient, her writing is more sophisticated than that in (10), (11), and (12).

(13). On the subject of the indigenous people, Pro-Columbus writers sort of slide right over. **They mention** the Indians with pleasant descriptions such as "The naked savages greeted them kindly, kissed their hands and feet and tried to follow them when they went away," **describes Sherwood** in "Columbus and the Indians.

This writer clearly understands function of outside sources. She uses them as support for the argument she is pursuing rather than as foregrounded material. Unfortunately, her citation is pulled in two directions by the signal expressions she employs. The fact that her language skill has lagged behind her rhetorical awareness is not cause for dismay. Instead, we feel that she is the type of student who could accelerate her development with direct instruction.

A third type of problem typical of students in Level 2 is the use of inappropriate prefatory or post comments to their citations. This type of problem can have as its cause either a non-rhetorical reading strategy (cf. Kantz 1991) or the assumption of the presence of a rich communicative context typical of speech situations, both of which result in what Flower (1979) calls "writer-based prose." In example (14) below, although the student skillfully introduces her citation, she has used the inappropriate strategy of following it up by tacking on yet another citation. Even though she recognizes her rhetorical obligation to follow up her citation, she does not realize that using a second citation is an inappropriate means of doing so. By merely sequencing citations, she has not privileged her own argumentative purpose. She has wrongly assumed that a research paper is but series of citations, proving to her audience that she read

her sources. From the alternative perspective, the use of this relatively incoherent post comment reveals that the writer believes that a rich communicative context of shared assumptions typical of speech is in place, allowing her to evaluate her post-citation comment as coherent.

(14) Columbus tried to convert the Indians to Christianity. Columbus writes in his log, "I know they are a people who can be made free and converted to our Holy Faith. They can easily be made Christian, for they seem to have no religion." **Because of Columbus and the Christians trying to convert the Indians to Christianity, it caused the destruction of the native's cultures and religions, according to James Muldoon, professor of history at Rutgers University.**

Probably the most persistent of the student writing problems typical of Level 2 are those associated with the grammar of topicalization, in particular errors made with structures such as "in X's book, he" and "according to X, she states . . ." These structures are not as simple as they seem, and, in using them, student writers make errors of reference and of subject grammar.

Examples (15), (16) and (17) contain errors certainly familiar to writing teachers. In both, the writers have established distance between their own text and that of the source by topicalizing the source text, but have then mistakenly assumed that the pronoun nonambiguously refers to the source author.

(15) Greed should have been Columbus' middle name. He knew that the land that he discovered had what he needed to make him a very rich man. **In Bill Bigelow's writing he claims** that Columbus was not sailing to prove the world was round. .

(16) . . . The Indians wanted to trade their parrots and cotton yarn for beads. **According to Columbus' log he wrote**, "I warned my men to take nothing from the people without giving something in exchange."

(17) Kohn also quotes the libertarian author Stephen Arons as **he** suggests that often parents have "an articulated feeling the child belongs at home and not in an institution." (p. 21)

Similar problems occur with the more complex task of citing a source which cites another source, as in (18).

(18) In Bigelow's writing he quotes passages out of a book written by Hans Koning. **In the book he wrote**, 'There were no gold fields, and thus, once the Indians had handed in whatever they still had in gold ornaments, their only hope was to work all day. . . "

In this case, the student writer topicalizes the main, or matrix, source but fails to signal the relation between her source, Bigelow, and the source cited by Bigelow, viz, Koning. As in (16) and (17), she is referring not to a particular author but rather to the topicalized information.

In addition to reference problems, student writers also confuse topicalized information with the grammatical subject as in (19), (20), and (21).

(19) **According to Women's Right Advocate, Shirley S. Segawa, senior counsel for the National Women's Law Center, will try** every resource and technique to change V.M.I.'s admission of only male students.

(20). **According to the Civil Rights laws were intended** to insure that women and minority-group members have opportunities to get a good education.

(21) **According to People For the American way (P.F.A.W.) a group that researches and reports annually on this subject for the past nine years believe that,** these examples indicate, books are being challenged across the country not because of the fabric of their being, but for anything that might in any way offend someone.

The confusion between topic and grammatical subject is also apparent in (22), where the writer misanalyzes the topicalized information as the head noun of a relative clause.

(22) **According to the United States Department of Education which argued** that State support of a single-sex college violates the constitution's Fourteenth Amendment clause insuring equal protection for all citizens.

Also frequently associated with the confusion of topic and grammatical subject are fragments, as in (23) and (24).

(23) **Judge L. Kiser, who in a previous case cited the work of three of the nation's most prominent educators**. Judge Kiser feels that these three researchers will play a key role in the federal court decision, upholding the right of V.M.I. to admit only male students.

(24) **Another attempt to identify home educators was made by Dr. Mary Hook, researcher and author of HSLDA, she** studied and identified four philosophies with the home school community: "essentialism, progressivism, perennialism, and existentialism."

In (23), the writer, unsure of how to integrate the topicalized information into the matrix sentence, tries to solve the problem by starting a new sentence to make her assertion. The writer of (24), more sophisticated, skillfully passivizes the verb in the topicalized clause in order to establish an appropriate head noun for the following clause. However, she stumbles over the grammar of relative clauses.

PEDAGOGICAL RESPONSE

The above examples provide abundant evidence that many student writers lack the necessary grammatical knowledge and skill to integrate outside sources into their text. However, it is interesting to note that college handbooks often required by freshmen writing courses provide little help with this problem. None of the four texts we consulted (*The Allyn & Bacon Handbook* (1994), *The St. Martin's Handbook* 3rd ed. (1995), *The Holt Handbook* 4th ed. (1995) and the *Simon and Schuster Handbook for Writers* (1993)) discuss the syntax of "according to" or other kinds of topicalizing form such as "in the book/article/ etc." All four texts advise students to integrate their sources "smoothly" into their writing. Usually this advice is accompanied by examples. The best discussion of how integration is done is in *The St. Martin's Handbook*. For example, Lunsford and Connors note, "Introducing a quotation with the author's name and a signal verb is clear and simple way of integrating the quotation into your text." By signal verbs, Lunsford and Connors mean such words as suggest, claim disagree, etc. The *Allyn and Bacon Handbook* contains a similar list.

The only text which offers any kind of exercise which has passages with problems in integrating sources is *Handbook for Writers*. The exercise has passages with a parachuted quotation, tense shifts, and an inaccurate quotation among others. The exercise has the following directions.

> Read the original material. [A paragraph follows these directions.] Then evaluate the passages that show unacceptable uses of quotations. Point out problems, and write a revision of each. End your quotations with this MLA parenthetical reference: (Siwolop 111). (p. 562)

There are two problems in this exercise. The first problem is an example of a parachuted quotation while the second is a problem of tense.

> A. Many problems are caused when sensitive equipment overheats. "Most microchips develop amnesia long before the temperature climbs to the boiling point of water" (Siwolop 111).
> B. Several new developments have taken place at North Carolina State University in Raleigh "have successfully made microelectronic transistors that operate at temperatures of up to 1,200 F" (Siwolop 111).

Both of these problems at least reflect the kind of difficulties we have found in our students's writing.

Our explanation for the problems students have is that students have not had enough experience with the written language. Although this exemplary exercise has problems we have found, it still does not provide students with a grounding in the rhetorical problems they face in using written sources in their writing and, just as importantly, the necessary GRAMMATICAL forms that are available for smoothly integrating other texts into their writing.

Our pedagogical suggestions are grounded in this explanation. First, we believe that students need to become aware of how written sources are integrated into published sources. Following Campbell (1990), we strongly recommend that students must read articles not only for their information but for examples how the rhetorical function of cited sources and the grammatical forms used to

integrate such sources into the text. Second, we like the lists of "attributive" or "signal" words in *The St. Martin's Handbook* and *The Allyn and Bacon Handbook*. Finally, we believe that students need to practice solving the grammatical issues posed by integrating sources into their text. Ideally, these exercises should be based on the students's writing. Because of the impracticality of such exercises we recommend the kind of exercise cited above.

Note

1. Some of the samples are drawn from student responses to the material on Christopher Columbus and Cinderella found in Behrens and Rosen (1994).

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The Nine-Question Method of Teaching Grammar

Glenn Swetman
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To use traditional grammar in teaching composition one must ensure that his students understand the basic structure of the simple sentence (clause). In order to use information in most college and many K-12 textbooks, a student must know the terminology. It does little good for a student to learn that "a linking verb agrees with its subject, not with its complement (predicate noun)" when subjective complement is defined as "A word (or words) that completes the meaning of a linking verb and that modifies or refers to the subject"--a definition that includes subject complements but does not exclude, especially in the mind of the student, detached appositives, adverbial nouns, and other elements that sometimes follow linking verbs.[1]

Furthermore, a student often has difficulty in making the connection between the abstract definition in the book and a real sentence he has written.

An approach that I find useful is to ignore (but not eliminate) the definitions and instead use discovery procedures consisting of a series of nine questions, which, when asked properly, and in order, reveal the basic structure of the sentence with no chance for error.

For example, to determine if the sentence "The apple turned red" has a predicate complement, the student first asks Question #1: "Is there an element in the predicate that answers the question `What?' (including who or whom) directly to the verb?" Because the answer is "yes," the verb has a predicate complement--red.

To determine if the predicate complement is a subjective (subject) complement or an object, the student asks Question #2: "Can any form of be or become be substituted for the verb without significantly changing the meaning of the sentence?" Because the answer is "yes," the student knows that the predicate complement is a subjective (subject) complement.

On the other hand, if the sentence were "John hit the ball," then the answer to question #2 would be "no"; and the predicate complement, ball, would be an object.

Once it is determined that the complement is an object, then one asks Question #3: "Is the subject doing the action?" If the answer is "yes," then one has a direct object as in "John hit the ball." If, on the other hand, the answer is "no," then there is a retained object as in "John was given the ball." When a retained object is found, then one skips Questions #4 and #5 and asks Question #7.

If, however, there is a direct object, the student asks Question #4: "Is there an element on the predicate that tells `to whom or what' or `for whom or what' the action is performed on the direct object?" If the answer is "yes," as in "John threw Tim the ball," then there is an indirect object; and one asks Question #5 to see if there might also be an objective complement. Question #5 is "Is there an element in the predicate that tells what the direct object becomes or should become as the result of the action of the verb?" If the answer is "yes" as in "The cook fixed him his soup cold," then there is an objective complement as well as an indirect object; but even if there is no indirect object (the answer to Question #4 is "no") one must still ask Question #5, for most objective complements occur without indirect objects--as in "The president appointed him ambassador."

Question #6 ("Is the subjective complement used as a noun or an adjective?") is asked only if the answer to Question #2 is "yes," for example in the sentences "That house is red" and "That house is my birthplace." If the answer is "adjective" (red), then

the complement is a predicative adjective; if the answer is "noun" (birthplace), then the complement is a predicate nominative.

After the first six questions--which identify the subject verb and complement--one asks Question #7 to help classify the verb: "Does the verb show action passing to a receiver?" If the answer is "yes," then the verb is transitive; and the student asks Question #8: "Who or what is receiving the action, the direct object or the subject?" If the answer is "direct object," the verb is transitive active. If the answer is "subject," the verb is transitive passive.

If, however, the answer to Question #7 was "no," the verb is intransitive and the student asks Question #9: "Why?" ("Why is the answer to Question #7 `no'?"). If the answer is that there is no action, then the verb is a linking verb (is-verb). If the answer is that there is action but no receiver, then the verb is intransitive complete.

The advantages to this system are many. By learning nine questions, the student obtains an understanding of sixteen elements of the sentence. The student learns all of the major elements of the clause (the basic framework of all sentences). The knowledge learned can be put immediately to use in understanding the sentence: the student obtains enough information to read and understand any grammar book that uses the usual traditional terminology. Furthermore the information can be explained by the use of a very simple branching tree diagram. The method has no "exceptions": if the student asks the right question, he gets the right answer every time. Finally the system is semantically based; and by using the questions, the student is using his own natural understanding of the language.

Last, by participating (through the questions) in his acquisition of the understanding of the structure of the clause, the student gains self confidence. Grammar is no longer something invented by English teachers to confuse him. It becomes a simple system that enables him to understand the rules of proper usage. It works!

1 The quotations are from Hodges, John C., et al. Harbrace College Handbook, 12th ed. New York: Harcourt, 1994. 70, G-34.

THE NINE QUESTIONS

(List of abbreviations)

Y = yes
N = no
= = equal(s)
-> = proceed to
Q = Question
PC = Predicate Complement
SC = Subjective Complement
O = Object
DO = Direct Object
RO = Retained Object
IO = Indirect Object
OC = Objective (Object) Complement
PN = Predicate Nominative (Noun)
PA = Predicate Adjective
TV = Transitive Verb
IV = Intransitive Verb
LV = Linking (<u>Is</u>-)Verb
IC = Intransitive Complete Verb
SU = Subject
TA = Transitive Active
TP = Transitive Passive

#Q1: Is there an element in the predicate that answers the question "What?" (including <u>who</u> or <u>whom</u>) directly to the verb?

Y = PC -> Q2 N = -> Q7

#Q2: Can any form of <u>be</u> or <u>become</u> be substituted for the verb?

Y = SC -> Q6 N = O -> Q3

#Q3: Is the subject doing the action?

Y = DO -> Q4 N = RO -> Q7

#Q4: Is there an element in the predicate that tells "to whom or what" or "for whom or what" the action is performed upon the direct object?

Y = IO -> Q5 N = -> Q5

#Q5: Is there an element in the predicate that tells what the direct object becomes or should become as the result of the action of the verb?

Y = OC -> Q7 N = -> Q7

#Q6: Is the subjective complement used as a noun or an adjective?

Noun = PN -> Q7 Adjective = PA -> Q7

#Q7: Does the verb show action passing to a receiver?

Y = TV -> Q8 N = IV -> Q9

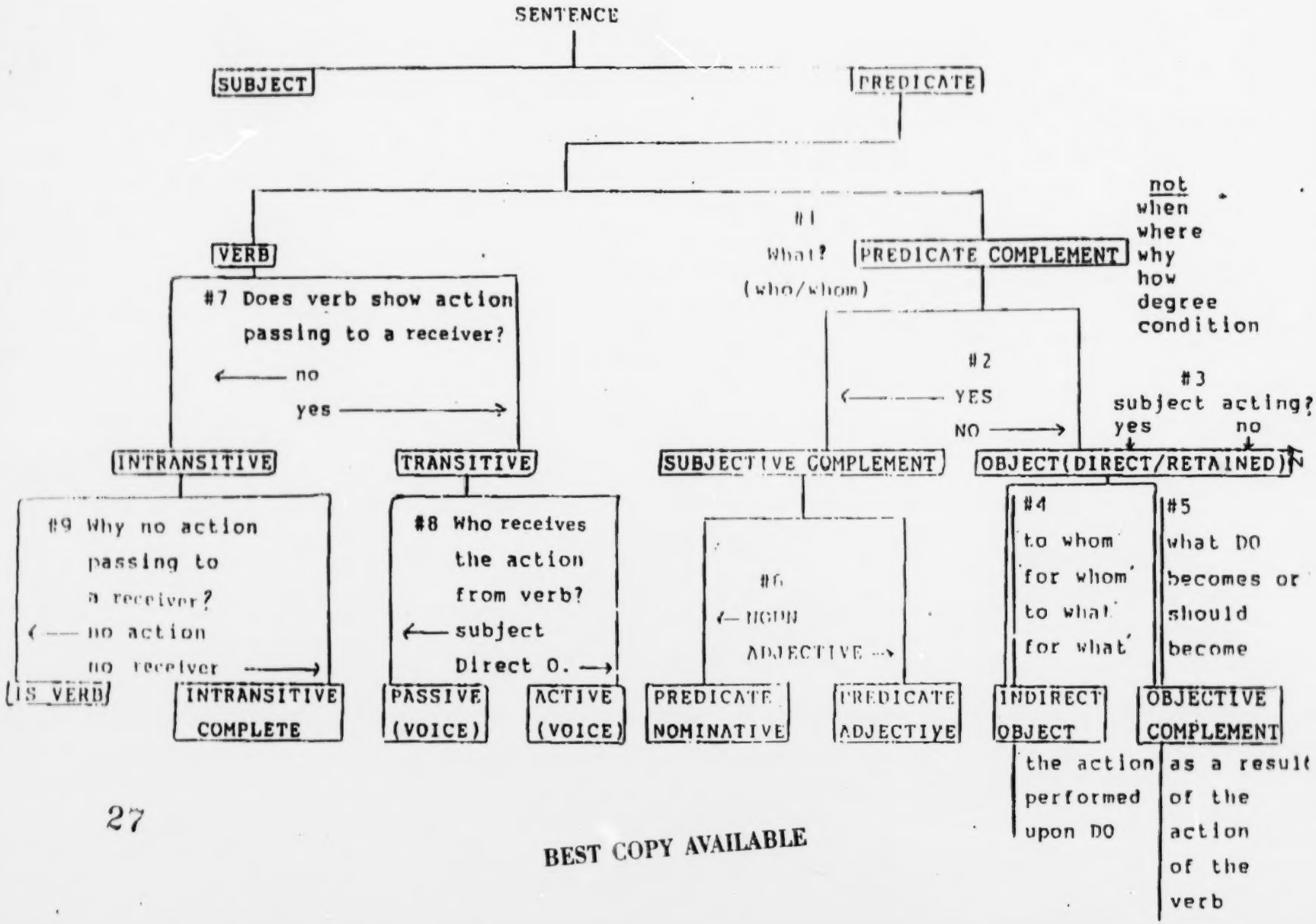
#Q8: Who or what is receiving the action, the direct object or the subject?

DO = TA SU = TP

#Q9: Why? (Why is the answer to Q7 "no"?)

No action = LV No receiver = IC

[See Diagram on next page.]



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Simplifying Tree Structures in the Grammar Classroom

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A considerable number of teachers of grammar prefer using traditional diagrams to illustrate the structure of English sentences in the classroom because they consider tree structures to be too theoretically complex and abstract for beginning college students, many of whom are learning about grammatical form and function for the first time. I propose in my paper that there are ways to get around the theoretical issues posed by generative grammar and that, with a bit of ingenuity, teachers can easily modify tree structures to represent in simple terms the structure of English sentences.

There is, of course, considerable debate about the advantages of using one type of visual representation of structure over another. I do not wish to debate this issue here, but I can propose several reasons why I believe beginning students from the outset respond well to tree structure representations. First, they are forced to write down labels of categories on their paper; in a traditional diagram this information must be retained in one's head and converted onto paper into another level of abstraction of line representation. Second, constituent structure is more visually obvious when captured under labelled nodes. Third, because of reasons one and two, doing a comparison of multiple sentences, studying structural ambiguity, etc., is easier for the students to grasp since all the necessary information is on paper (students do not need to retain information in their heads).

In terms of theoretical background knowledge that is important to an understanding of tree structures, in a beginning grammar class, it is possible to explain to students that the goal of the tree structure model is to visually represent our unconscious and abstract knowledge of structural units without having to introduce to them the notion of phrase structure rules and their operation in generative grammars. Moreover, we can simplify our understanding of the English sentence by allowing students to presume that our starting place of the sentence will always be with a noun phrase and a verb phrase and by focusing throughout the course on the fact that the verb phrase is the powerhorse of the English sentence. These are basic concepts, but they allow us to work with basically only three phrasal categories off the main sentence (S): the pre-subject adverbial phrase, which we explain as modifying the whole S or the verb phrase specifically, the noun phrase, and the verb phrase. Kolln's (1994) ten basic declarative kernel sentences, the three other sentence types, and adverbial, nominal, and adjectival clauses can all be illustrated by using these three phrasal categories off the main S.

Kolln's ten basic sentence patterns do a good job of introducing students to phrasal form categories and beginning notions of grammatical functions. These are easily represented in tree structures. (For people not familiar with Kolln's textbook, Sentence Patterns #1-3 capture Be verbs plus adverb, and subject complement adjective or noun phrase; Patterns #3-5 capture linking verbs plus subject complement adjective or noun phrase; Pattern #6 captures intransitive verbs as opposed to transitive verbs in Pattern #7; Pattern #8 captures sentences which include both direct and indirect objects). With continued practice, students get more adept at recognizing phrasal units because they are obliged each time they draw a tree to label the form class of each constituent and conjecture its relationship to other ones in the sentence. Sentence Patterns #9 and #10, object complement constructions (for instance, in The students painted their pictures blue and The students considered the teacher a scholar), are more challenging, but they are particularly important because they introduce the students right away to the idea of abstract elements in tree representation, in this

case an abstract underlying S. Imperative sentences provide a nice transition from Sentence Pattern #10 to other sentence types, since we can easily continue this idea of abstract elements in a tree representation. The fact that a deletion rule operates on imperative sentences is not really what is important to the students' understanding here of syntactic structure; what is more important is that our students see the relation between the underlying and surface structures and recognize that, as in Sentence Patterns #9 and #10, certain elements in underlying structure may not manifest themselves in the surface construction.

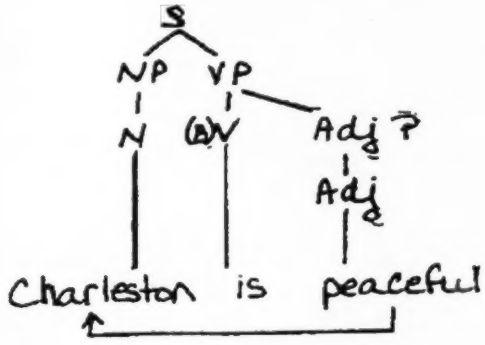
The focus of my paper is on other structures such as sentence type transformations (interrogative and exclamatory) and adverbial and nominal clauses. I will show how the following modifications can simplify our representations.

Issue 1.

We can draw trees that visually represent the connection as well as the divergence of the transformed surface sentence to the basic underlying kernel. What is difficult for students is that current models connect transformed elements back to the S. I propose instead that the basic underlying kernel be represented under the S but that transformed elements be left to the side, connected only to the kernel by dotted movement lines in order to better show the relationship. This allows us not to worry about abstract categories like COMP, for instance, that force us to make a connection back to the main S.

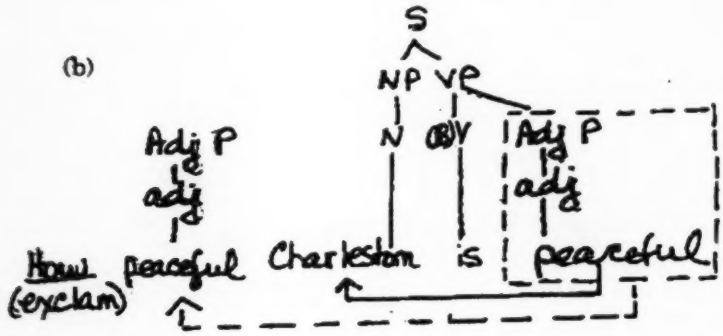
For example, in the exclamatory sentence How peaceful Charleston is!, we start with the kernel Sentence Pattern #2, the declarative (a) Charleston is peaceful.

(a)



Illustrated in (b), we can easily show that the adjectival element has shifted its syntactic position.

(b)



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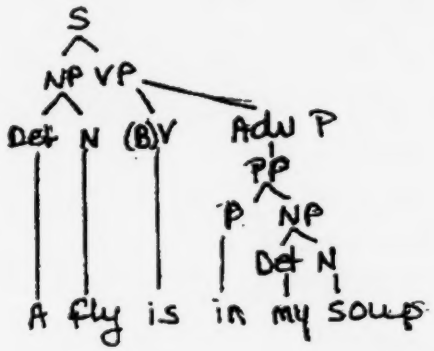
By not connecting the shifted adjectival node to the kernel S we can keep the kernel S distinct from elements that get shifted in surface structure. How can then just be added to the front of the sentence to show that it has no position or plays no role in the kernel declarative S; we can simply label it as an exclamatory marker, whose function is simply to signal that what follows is no longer a declarative sentence.

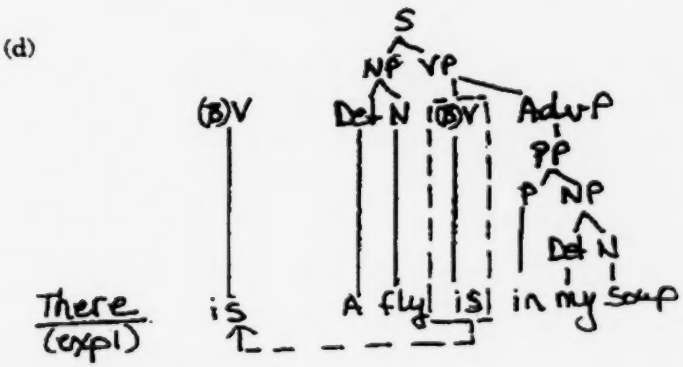
The 'expletive there' transformation works in a similar fashion. In There is a fly in my soup, students will recognize Sentence Pattern #1, A fly is in my soup, illustrated in (c).

(c)



In (d), we can note Be-verb fronting, and the expletive there whose outright function is simply to mark the sentence as stylistically emphatic rather than simply declarative.

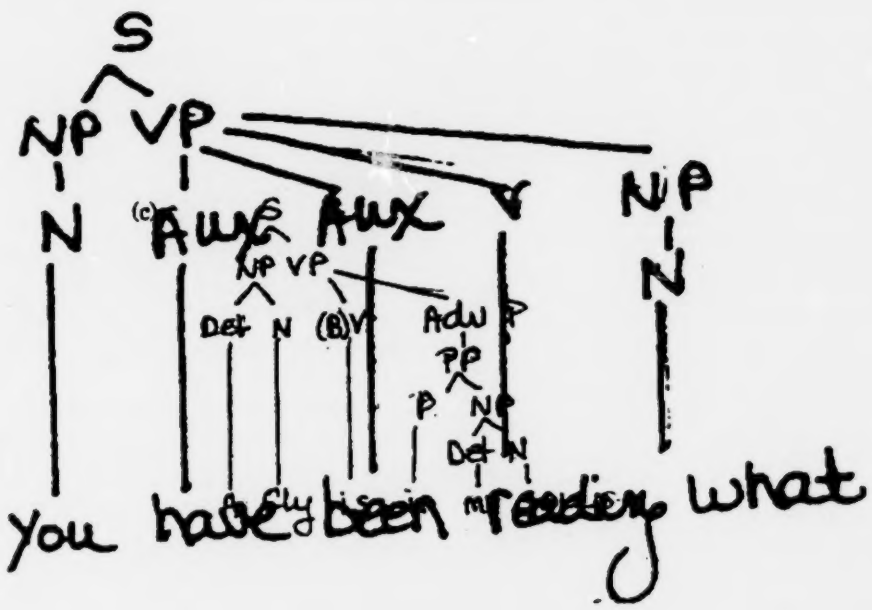
(d)



Again, allowing there to float in front rather than attach itself to the kernel S allows students to grasp its nonexistent role in the kernel and its emphatic function in terms of delaying the realization of the real subject.

The interrogative movement and aux inversion transformations, it seems to me, do not need to get too complicated. What is important is that students can identify underlying basic kernel structures and recognize which elements shift position to form a new sentence type. Again, keeping the underlying S distinct from shifted elements helps the students to visually distinguish underlying from surface structures. In the interrogative What have you been reading?, for example, students should recognize Sentence Pattern #7, (e) You have been reading what.

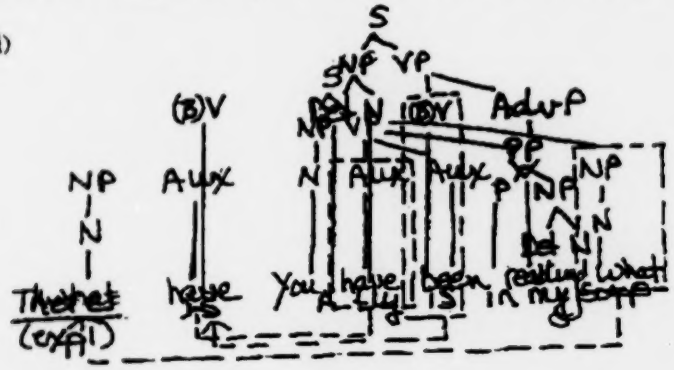
(e)



They can transform without needing to worry about how the shifted NP and Aux theoretically link up with the S (f).

(d)

(f)



The point here is that if students learn to recognize categories of words, their form and function in relation to each other, and grasp the relation of a kernel to more complex constructions, they will have gained a lot for a beginning course in grammar.

Issue 2.

Certain words simply mark particular elements in the sentence (i.e., after in She left the room after he finished the exam and that in I remembered that she went to Florida). Again, rather than identifying a grammatical category for these markers, I propose a structure that shows these elements as simply inserted markers that function to signal the succeeding embedded clause. Each S_1 clause gets marked as ADV or NP with the marker off to the side of the S_1 so students don't need to worry about labeling markers such as that or after. What is important is that the students recognize 1) words that mark and 2) what the word marks (i.e., nominal clauses or adver-

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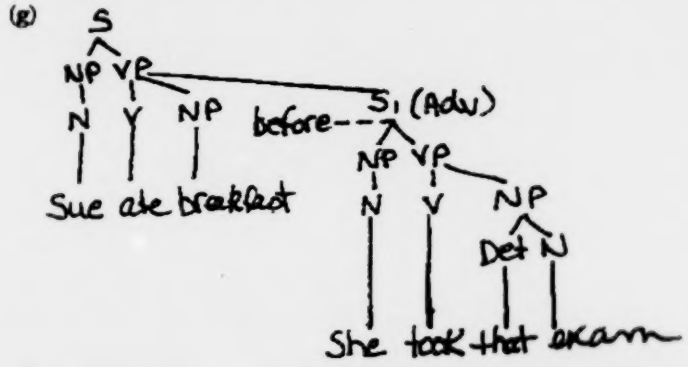
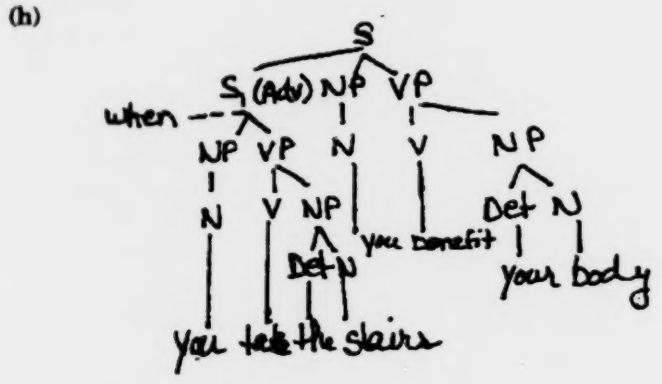
bial clauses). This allows the students, too, to more readily identify the sentence patterns of the main S and the embedded S. .

To begin, let us look at a sample embedded S adverbial clause, (g) Sue ate breakfast before she took that exam. The main point for the students to grasp is that before functions to mark a further embedded S as subordinate or dependent to the main S. Some students have a hard time recognizing that there is indeed "a little S" in the sentence. An improvised tree structure can help them to visualize the relation between S and S_1.



By putting before off to the side of the S_1, the students are able to recognize that before simply functions to mark the "little S" as subordinate and as adverbial. Having the students write (ADV) next to the S_1 forces them to distinguish different functions of S_1 (as adverbial vs. nominal vs. adjectival).

We can visually represent a distinction, then, between the adverbial when as part of an adverbial subordinate clause construction, and the adverbial when that functions as an interrogative in a nominal clause. In (h) When you take the stairs, you benefit your body, when functions as an adverbial marker, floating off to the side in order to show that it really plays no role within the S_1.



In (i) When you arrive is none of my business, by contrast, the students can more readily see that the interrogative when plays a specific role as adverbial in the embedded S_1, an S_1 that fills the usual NP subject slot.

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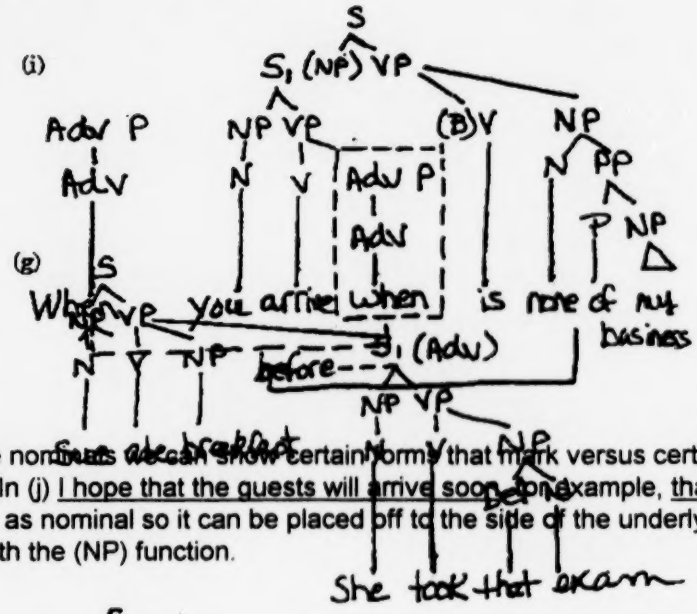
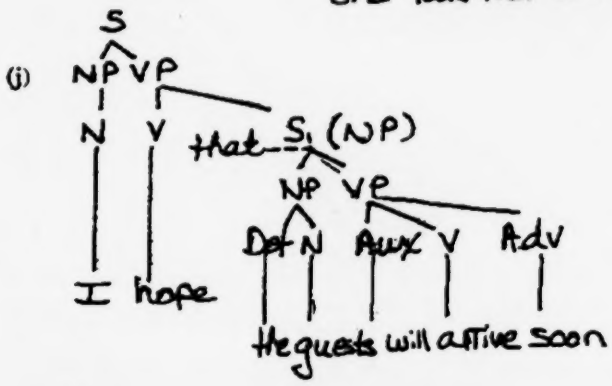
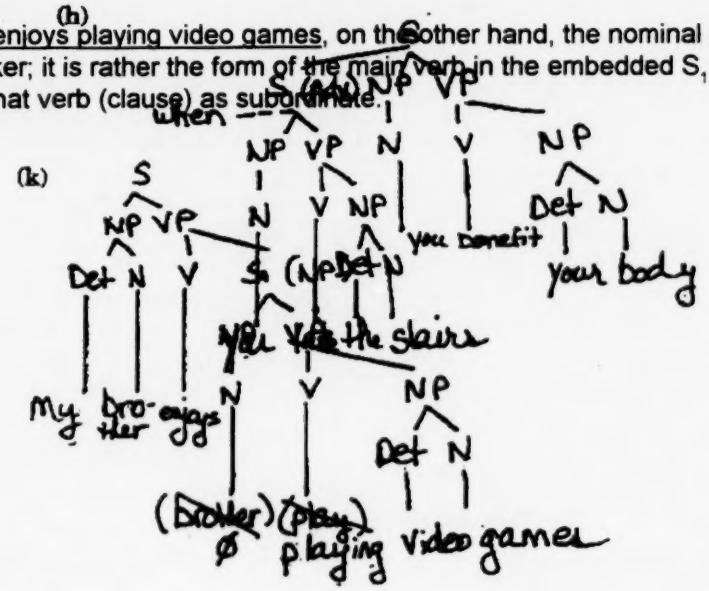


Again, among the nominals we can show certain forms that mark versus certain constructions that hold no markers. In (j) I hope that the guests will arrive soon, for example, that functions to mark the embedded S_1 as nominal so it can be placed off to the side of the underlying S_1, and the S_1 can be labeled with the (NP) function.



In (k) My brother enjoys playing video games, on the other hand, the nominal gerund phrase has no particular marker; it is rather the form of the main verb in the embedded S_1 that changes and therefore marks that verb (clause) as subordinate.



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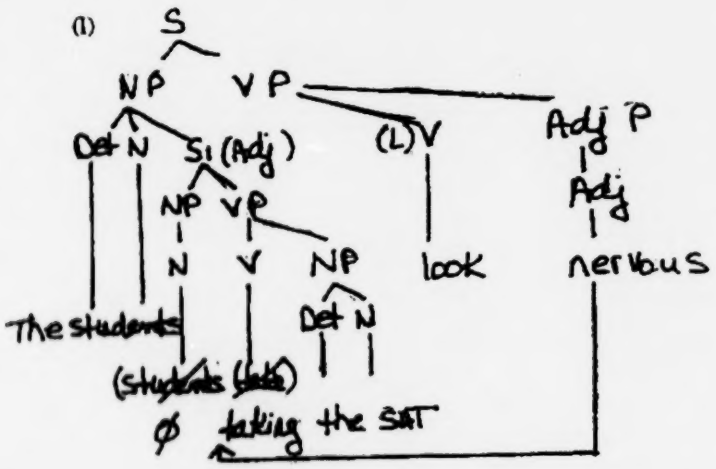
Again, the change in the verb can be easily represented and therefore visualized on the page by simply crossing out underlying elements and then showing surface changes.

We see a similar type of tree construction with the adjectival participial embedded clause in (l) The students taking the SAT look nervous. It also has no particular outward clause marker other than a surface change to the main verb of the embedded clause.

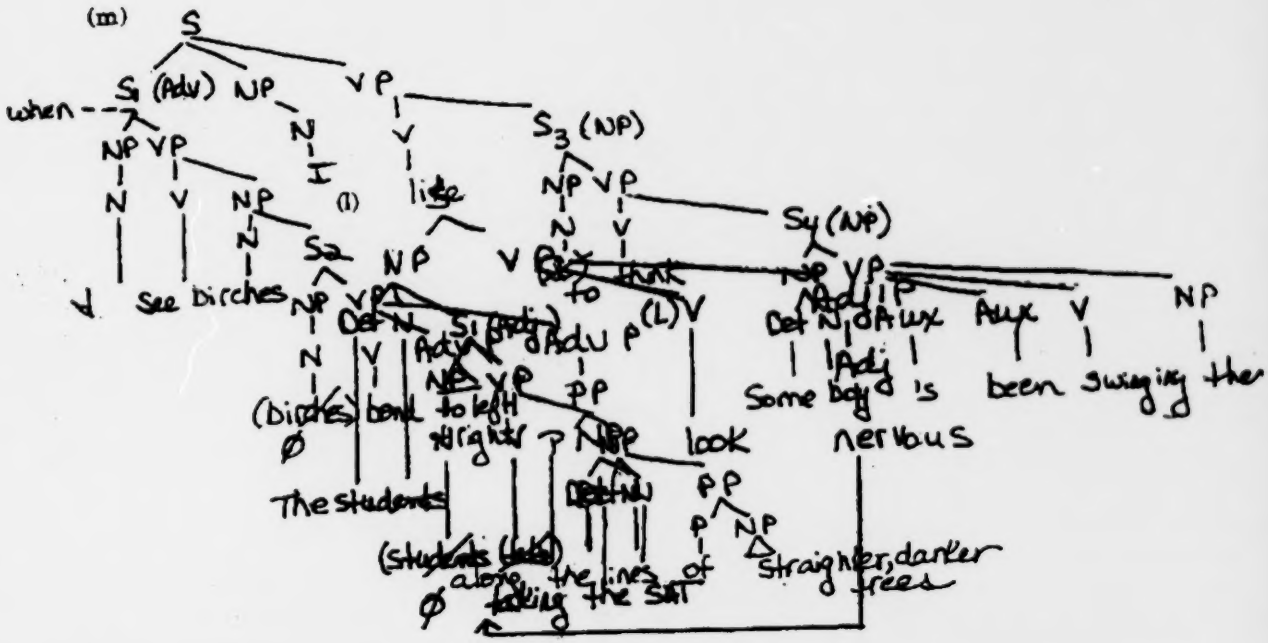


Again, requiring the students to label each S as having an adverbial, nominal, or adjectival function forces the students to critically analyze the relation of the S to the embedded S_1.

Of course, my simple technique here is not aimed at beginning students of linguistics. Many of my students, as perhaps some of you have experienced, enter my Structure of the English Language course unable to differentiate a noun from a verb from a preposition in a declarative sentence. One thing that tree structures do is force the students to practice their knowledge over and over (one thing that these students in particular especially need), so that by the latter part of the semester the constituent elements of a noun phrase or verb phrase or prepositional phrase become automatic, allowing the students to face the more complicated challenges of gerund and participial phrases. With modified tree structures, junior and senior level high school students I would think would be able to succeed just as well.

In my experience, students who have learned traditional diagramming in high school say they prefer the tree structure approach. It is true, though, that one disadvantage, as they see it, is that trees take a lot of time, especially the more complex the sentence construction. I think, though, that slowing down, taking one's time to analyze a highly complex sentence reaps all kinds of intellectual rewards. Sentences extracted from poetry or literary prose are worth the time and trouble to analyze, if not just to show how literary text unfolds an analytic depth and complexity that we simply don't encounter in everyday speech. Martha Kolln's workbook includes a wonderful sentence from Robert Frost's poem "Birches" that unfolds, yes, a very complex tree structure and, yes, one that takes much time and trouble to produce (m):

When I see birches bend to left and right,
Along the lines of straighter, darker trees,
I like to think some boy's been swinging them.



Slowing down to analyze how all the pieces fit together is worth the time and trouble, for we truly do, at the end of it all, feel as if we've accomplished an intellectual work-out, a feat of some sort. And we understand much better why we find the language of Frost in this particular poem so appealing.

In short, my point is to appeal to my colleagues who believe there is only one way to produce a tree structure and who are afraid that they will produce "a wrong one." By allowing ourselves to be flexible with the basic concepts that tree structures allow, we may more readily think up all kinds of alternative representations for a single sentence; even this is a teaching strategy, in itself, for having students argue the benefits or disadvantages of one type of representation over another challenges them, and us, even further in our critical thinking.

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Teaching Grammar Through Technical Documents

Jim Brosnan
(Providence, RI)

Before I begin a discussion of how to use specific samples of writing to teach grammar, I think that a little background about the selected documents would be appropriate. First, the samples which are being illustrated represent some of the more "troubled" student writing samples that I receive, and they do not represent the average responses which are generally submitted. Over the years I have found that generally most students demonstrate a specific problem area in their papers and not a total "grammar illiteracy". However, the writers of these "error pieces" are clearly individuals needing the most writing assistance. By examining these anonymous photocopied writing samples in class, the student authors gain valuable insight as their classmates suggest valid changes in sentence structure, subject/verb agreement, etc. Other class members may also recognize similar error patterns in their own papers during the evaluation.

Second, the number of international students on the undergraduate level at the university constitutes about 17% of the student population; they originate from 82 different countries. On the graduate level, the percentage rises to about 50% international. This fact also contributes to the awkward wording found in some of these samples. However, general student exposure to these differences is beneficial to everyone's future since in the twenty-first century your students will be dealing with individuals from a multitude of cultural backgrounds.

The purpose of this discussion on teaching grammar through the use of technical documents is to demonstrate that grammar can be taught using a method other than the dreaded "drill and kill" exercises. My approach is to use the contents of various "real world" documents to reinforce grammatical knowledge in my varied teaching assignments at Johnson & Wales University. In the discussion that follows I will illustrate various approaches used in both my undergraduate and graduate writing courses. The concepts could obviously be used on the secondary or even middle school level. The only difference is the complexity of the writing assignment.

Since the phrase "America's Career Institution" frequently follows our university name, the curriculum includes a business writing review for a couple of weeks. In this introductory Composition class, students write various letters and memos. In one class exercise students write two memos in response to a "staged scenario" in which they participate. Students attend this "classroom meeting" where employee tardiness is discussed; students are involved in brainstorming solutions. They are then given the task of writing a memo to all employees informing them of the group decision that was reached regarding tardiness. A second memo is sent to the board of directors explaining how they, as supervisors, have solved the problem. A sampling of anonymous student papers are photocopied. Class discussion focuses on content and tone, as well as grammatical errors (Figure 1).

F I GURE 1

GRAMMAT I CAL FO C U S
0N QUE S T I ONNA I R E I TEMS

1. SENTENCE STRUCTURE
   - FRAGMENTS
   - RUN ON SENTENCES
   - COMMA SPLICES
2. AGREEMENT
   - SUBJECT & VERB
   - PRONOUN & ANTECEDENT
3. PARALLELISM
4. MODIFIERS
   - DANGLING
   - MISPLACED
5. PUNCTUATION
6. WORD CHOICE
   - CONNOTATION & DENOTATION
   - SEXIST LANGUAGE
   - JARGON

In Technical Writing, an advanced course at the university, students complete a number of writing tasks which are examined not only for content, but more particularly for form and grammatical structure. In this course students complete short descriptions, definitions, and processes. Students also respond to a job ad. Sample letters are reproduced and critiqued by the class either as photocopied samples and/or as overheads. Students soon realize that those writers who lack a knowledge of grammatical structures are more likely to confuse the reader and usually detract from their message.

In Advanced Composition and a graduate course in Research Methods, students construct a questionnaire. Survey items help to reinforce the importance of grammar mastery. Statements or questions must be complete sentences. Close attention is given to fragments, run-on sentences, and comma splices. Survey items can be examined for agreement of the subject and verb and the pronoun and the antecedent. Parallelism can be also taught using questionnaire statements or questions, as well as the identification of dangling and misplaced modifiers. Punctuation also becomes important particularly with topics like the correct use of the comma. The actual selection of words can be examined by discussing the connotation of words used. Sexist language and jargon can also be discussed.

As a class exercise, a general topic can be chosen for illustrative purposes. In my Research Methods for hospitality students, we chose the general topic of customer satisfaction at a hotel. In Figure 2, there are sample responses to this assignment. Many grammatical topics can be discussed using these examples. I might suggest a review of parallelism in the first example. There is also a problem of asking the respondent to answer more than one question in the first example (helpful with reservations, tee times, etc.). In the second example there is an awkward verb phrase (Did ... satisfy) and an unnecessary phrase (to you). The third question could lead to a discussion of the difference between nouns (efficiency) and the intended adjective (efficient). The fourth example could be used to illustrate parallelism with the similar phrase constructions (knowledgeable about the area and helpful with tourist information). All of these topics can be discussed once copies of survey items are shown on an overhead and/or copies are distributed to the students in class.

F I GURE 2

S AMPL E R E S PON S E S TO QU E S T I ONNA I R E ITEMS

1. WAS THE GUEST SERVICES PERSON HELPFUL IN MAKING DINNER RESERVATIONS, TEE TIMES, OR ANYTHING EXTRA YOU NEEDED DURING YOUR STAY?
2. DID YOU SATISFY THE SERVICE THAT OUR EMPLOYEE PROVIDED TO YOU DURING YOUR STAY?
3. HOW EFFICIENCY DO THE FRONT DESK WORKERS COMMUNICATE WITH YOU?
4. THE FRONT DESK CLERK WAS KNOWLEDGEABLE ABOUT THE AREA AND HELPFUL WITH TOURIST INFORMATION.

In Figure 3, we have an example of a survey conducted in the Hospitality Research course. Many mini grammatical lessons can be gleaned from such a student sample. For example, the fifth item illustrates an awkward statement which could easily be rephrased to "Have you ever attended a hospitality school?" In items six, seven, and thirteen, the verbs (attend/help/need) are not in the correct form. In item nine, there is a mix of singular and plural choices; some of the plural choices are incorrect (employee job satisfactions / customer satisfactions). Once again consistency can be stressed.

Another valuable and brief assignment is to have students summarize in an abstract of about 50 to 75 words the essence of their research. In Figure 4, what is presented and punctuated as the first sentence is actually a fragment. Further, we could point out that "this research is (not) trying to find out" anything; it is really the researcher. In the next sentence the phrase "more of training programs" is

FIGURE 3

How do you feel about Employee Training?

Directions:
Please check the appropriate answer(s) or fill in the blank(s).

1) How long have you been working in the hotel?
   a) less than 3 months
   b) 3-6 months
   c) 6-12 months
   d) more than 1 year

2) Your job title is _____

3) You are a ... a) Male b) Female

4) What is your age?
   a) under 20
   b) 20-29
   c) 30-39
   d) 40 and up

5) Have you been in any kind of hospitality school?
   a) Yes
   b) No

6) Have you ever attend the employee training program provided by your hotel?
   a) Yes _____ time(s)
   b) No Please go to N0.8

7) How much did you think training help you improve your job performance?
   a) did not help
   b) help a little
   c) help a lot

8) How often do you think the hotel should provide an employee training?
   a) None
   b) Only for the job orientation
   c) Once a year
   d) Twice a year
   e) More than twice a year

9) What factor(s) do you think influenced by employee training? (Please check all that apply.)
   a) Employee Skills
   b) Employee Knowledge
   c) Employee Motivation
   d) Employee Attitudes
   e) Employee Teamwork
   f) Employee Turnover
   g) Employee Job Satisfactions
   h) Hotel Profits
   i) Reduced Operating Costs
   j) Customer Satisfactions

10) How do you feel about being able to work in more than one position?
   a) My work is already hard
   b) Good, so I can earn more money
   c) I am not sure but I would like to try

11) If you got a new position in a hotel, which would you prefer?
   a) Being trained on-the-job
   b) Join a traing program before taking the new position

12) What would you like to know more for your job improvement?
   a) Decisions making
   b) Hotel Standards
   c) Working Techniques
   d) Communication Skills

13) Who do you think need training the most?
   a) Management Executives
   b) Department Managers
   c) Fulltime Empoyees
   d) Hourly workers

Thanks for your help.

This is a questionaire for collecting primary source materials to be used in writing a thesis proposal in the Hospitality Administration program at Johnson & Wales Graduate School. I am a graduate student trying to do a research study of how training affects hotel employees.

awkward because of the insertion of the preposition "of". In the same sentence the phrase "to their employees" should read "for their employees". The final statement in the abstract is not clearly stated and could possibly be interpreted as a two-part question by the reader.

FIGURE 4

SAMPLE ABSTRACT

A STUDY ABOUT HOW TRAINING AFFECTS THE HOTELS EMPLOYEES. THIS RESEARCH IS TRYING TO FIND OUT IF HOTELS SHOULD PROVIDE MORE OF TRAINING PROGRAMS TO THEIR EMPLOYEES. IT WILL FOCUS ON WHAT COULD BE IMPROVED BY EMPLOYEE TRAINING. IF HOTELS SHOULD PROVIDE MORE TRAINING, WHAT KINDS OF TRAINING THE EMPLOYEES NEEDED.

In Figure 5, we could focus on subject/verb agreement (employee deal) in the first sentence. In addition to the awkwardness of the second sentence, we might discuss usage citing "effect" and "affect" as examples. The third sentence clearly opens the discussion of parallelism. Finally, the last sentence can be used to discuss misplaced modifiers and clarity in general.

FIGURE 5

S AMPLE ABSTRACT

MY RESEARCH PROBLEM IS ON HOW THE EMPLOYEE DEAL WITH CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY. THE DIFFERENCE IN CULTURE CAN BE EFFECT THE EFFICIENCY OF WORKER TO PROVIDE THE GOOD SERVICE TO THE CUSTOMER. MOREOVER BETWEEN THE CO-WORKERS WHO COME FROM DIFFERENCE BELIEVE, ETHIC AND ATTITUDE CAN HAVE THE PROBLEMS WITH COMMUNICATION, LANGUAGES, STREOTYPE OR DISCRIMINATION. TO FACE THE PROBLEM, TRAINING EMPLOYEES CAN REDUCE OR SOLVE THE DIFFERENT CULTURE IN WORKPLACE.

Therefore, it becomes clear that using technical documents creates a heightened interest in the correct use of grammar. The students can understand and connect with the real world writing situations that are truly simulations of their future writing concerns in the workplace. Thus, grammatical topics can be interestingly presented using student writing.

Proposal for an Official ATEG Bibliographer

Delma McLeod-Porter
(Lake Charles, LA)

I. Description of Bibliography

The ATEG Bibliography will resemble *The Bedford Bibliography for Teachers of Writing*, prepared by Patricia Bizzell and Bruce Herzberg. With input from members and colleagues interested in publications relating to grammar issues, entries could eventually be arranged topically. For example, the bibliography could include such sections as the following: traditional grammar, which might begin with brief annotations of early grammars (i.e., Reed-Kellogg) and continue with those grammars today that embrace what we have come to know as traditional grammar; though the bulk of these texts might have been published prior to 1950, interest in and teaching of traditional grammar still flourishes and such texts would be included in this section; structural grammar, which might include an overview of the texts published in the forties, fifties, and sixties; transformational - generative grammar, which would provide a brief overview of the T-G grammars. The historical section would conclude with annotations of work (functional grammar, government-binding, etc.) since the sixties and seventies.

Following the historical section, the bibliography would then be arranged topically. One section might be called grammar for middle-school teachers and focus on texts and articles that dealt directly with that grade-level; another might address grammar and composition at the college level. Topics would be dictated by the texts being generated by teachers/scholars.

II. Collection of Citations for Bibliography

Citations could be collected in a number of ways. ATEG members who run across interesting books and articles could send citations to the bibliography through mail, by phone, fax, or e-mail. Publishers' representatives are always eager to provide updates on new texts. Texts are often advertised in scholarly journals and at conferences. Scholars themselves network so that colleagues know what is being done in the discipline. Computers should facilitate collection and recording of citations.

III. Dissemination of Bibliography to ATEG Members

The bibliography could be initially distributed through e-mail, on diskette, or in paper copies. Eventually, we might be able to provide a more professional document (again, *The Bedford Bibliography for Teachers of Writing* comes to mind), should we find a publisher willing to accept our document as, perhaps, an ancillary text to something like a grammar handbook. In time, we could present it as a monograph to NCTE for publication.

IV. Sample Bibliographic Entry

Haussamen, Brock. Revising the Rules. *Traditional Grammar and Modern Linguistics*. Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Co., 1993.

Haussamen begins by providing a connection between the grammar that we teach in our classrooms with some of the historical and linguistic events that have shaped current pedagogies. The introduction is brief and understandable. Using the historical/linguistic framework, he then examines grammatical concepts (tense, pronoun agreement, adverbs, punctuation, and the like) within that framework. However, instead of simply tracing the growth of these linguistic features, Haussamen uses this framework to explain idiosyncrasies that may have, heretofore, seemed arbitrary. Not satisfied with just grounding the grammatical elements in the past, Haussamen offers suggestions for teaching in the here and now and, in some cases, predicts the direction linguistic change is heading.

Revising the Rules is a useful text for a

methods course for English majors and would be helpful to any teacher who has felt the need to answer his/her students' "But why do we do that" questions. The extensive bibliography makes the book even more useful in the college classroom where undergraduates frequently need a jump-start to get them going on research projects.

Editor's Note: This proposal was accepted at the conference. For more information, contact Professor Porter at:

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A Hands-On Non-Traditional Grammar That's Fun

Anthony Hunter
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My goal in this paper is to give an introduction to the strategies of a systematized way to make students owners of the structure of English sentences. This approach to teaching grammar has become crystallized in the books that make up my text *The Hunter Writing System™: Sentence Sense* (Delhi, N.Y.: Hunter & Joyce, 1991), which also includes paragraph and essay instruction. This work is the fruit of thirty-two years of teaching English: nine at the junior-high level and twenty-three at the college level.

My treatment will cover the following topics: the basis for this paper's title, the origins of the approach, the philosophy of the approach, some supporting data, flaws in most traditional treatments, some precautionary notes, the methodology in skeletal form, the basis for the need for two strategies to find verbs, how students are taught to find verbs, how students are taught to find subjects, applications to identifying fragments, and outcomes of note.

Basis for the Title

There is justification for the title of this paper. This approach is hands-on/mind-on in nature because students make substitutions in sentences, rearrange them (and then make comparisons), and do continual labeling. It is nontraditional because it is strategy--based rather than definition-based. It is fun-like Nintendo, according to one teacher--because it makes sense; it makes English make sense; and students go from success to success at progressively deeper levels of understanding and expression.

Origins of the Approach

The source of my interest in grammar as an aid to improving use of English was a stint of teaching I did in the Philippines. Because the seventh grade ESL students could not understand the only text available, a ninth grade American text, I managed the best I could. At the end of the year, the average number of books read per child was but one. During the second year, I started teaching grammar by building each new lesson on an earlier one and requiring diagraming. At the end of that year, the average number of books read per child had increased to eight. I became convinced of the efficacy of grammar.

However, it was when I was teaching seventh grade in the States that I made my best discoveries about how English works--failproof strategies for finding not only verbs but also several of the other parts of speech and of a sentence. (The slight knowledge I had acquired of two Filipino tongues gave me a unique vantage point from which to better understand English.)

At Teachers College, Columbia University, the linguist Robert L. Allen, who was head of my doctoral committee, accepted my innovative material unchanged but insisted that I combine it with his sector analysis at its "sentence level" as a basis for my dissertation. The resultant textbook material proved an ideal instrument for empowering students as writers and readers.

Philosophy of the Approach

By way of background, let me clarify for you the philosophy that underlies the grammatical core of this work. Its goal is to make students owners of the "tools" of our language--that is, of its structure. The means to achieve this goal are the following: the verb is taught as the sentence's hub; the definitions are practical in nature and true to English; the exercises require hands-on,

mind-on involvement; initial emphasis is on chunking--that is, on learning the roles of groups of words; the instruction and exercises cause immersion in structure; the exercises are cumulative even across chapters; and occasionally there is insistence on some simple memorization. The outcomes of the instruction are writing and reading that are spontaneous and accurate.

Statistical Underpinnings

There is proof that instruction based on this text can cause markedly improved writing. For her Master's dissertation at Rowen College of New Jersey, Barbara Stubbs carried out a controlled experimental study with seventh graders in which her slightly learning disabled students were taught the process approach to writing and ten chapters of *The Hunter Writing System™: Sentence Sense* while the control students were taught the process approach to writing and traditional grammar. The pre- and post-tests used were Forms A and B of the Test of Written Language-2's fifteen-minute spontaneous writing sample. The following gains from pre-test to post-test of the experimental group (the group taught this system) were statistically significant: +103% in punctuation and capitalization (the Contextual Style subtest score); +59% in overall writing competence (the overall Spontaneous Writing Quotient); +39% in subordination (the Syntactic Maturity subtest score); +18% in organization (the Thematic Maturity subtest score); and +39% in number of words produced. These students improved both in the spontaneity of their writing and in the success with which they revised and edited. By the way, in contrast the control group went backward in punctuation and capitalization, scoring -5%, and backward in organization, scoring -35%.

Inaccuracies in Traditional Strategies

It is important to be aware how flawed the traditional definitions of the two centrally most important concepts in grammar (those for the verb and the subject) are. Suppose you were asked to write down five verbs. Your list would probably include from two to four words that could function as either a noun or a verb--words like *laugh*, *jump*, and *run*. If words like these that show action can alternatively function as nouns (as in *My RUN around the block tired me*), how valid--especially from a benighted student's vantage point--is this definition of a verb? Consider, too, that some verbs (like *lack* and *own*) show no action; that helping verbs show no action; and that words that stem from verbs can function as a noun or adjective instead--that is, when in their gerund or participial form (words such as *eating*, *speaking*, and *broken*).

The traditional definition for a subject as what a sentence is about is just as flawed. In the eyes of students, what wording in this sentence best indicates what the sentence is about: *In the third inning, Ed hit a home run with two on base?* There is plenty of justification for their choosing *home run* as the answer. However, upon close examination, what this sentence is really talking about is "Ed's hitting a home run with two on base in the third inning." In fact, every sentence--when put in gerund form--is talking about all the words in its sentence in the same way.

Two Items of Note

For the sake of brevity, the exposition here of the initial techniques of this system will be a highly condensed version of how students learn them. In addition, some of the lesser points will of necessity be omitted.

Skeletal Introduction to the Strategies

One can appreciate the simplicity, order, and effectiveness of the strategies of the text by seeing them applied to a skeletal (or would-be) sentence. Such a sentence might have ten words as in this example:

Word word **word** **word** word
word word **word** **word** word .
[The words that are bolded are functioning as verbs.]

The reason the verbs have already been marked is that this is the very first task for students; they find verbs by using the strategies that will be explained below. They next find the one helping verb which--when shifted to the front of the sentence--causes the whole sentence to be an acceptable English question. If the sentence were to begin *Borrowers of things can forget* .... students would discover that they can rearrange the wording to read *Can borrowers of things ... forget ...*? The point, in part, is that the wording between the two positions of the helping verb that shifts (between *can* and *can*) will by this very fact always be the subject of the sentence. The point, too, is that because there is a second verb phrase, that other verb must be standing as an anchor for a dependent clause. Students will be able to find the boundaries of the clause because--by the time they read the last chapter when this is taught--they will have memorized the most important of the words that mark the start of a dependent clause and because dependent clauses commonly end at a natural boundary in a sentence, one of which is the end of the sentence.

Basis for the Need for Two Strategies to Find Verbs

When verbs stand as the nucleus of a clause, they either do begin with a helping verb or they do **not**. Each type of occurrence requires its own strategy. (Each strategy requires its own chapter or chapters in the text.)

How Students Find Verbs When There Is a Helping Verb

Introduction: This strategy has three steps, three exceptions, and a special case.

Step 1: Students must learn to recognize the twenty-three helping verbs on sight. Here they are grouped in a way in which they should be easier to remember:

from the verb DO: *do, does, did*
from the verb HAVE: *have, has, had*
from the verb BE: *be, being, been, am, are, is, was, were*
Remainders: *will, would; can, could; shall, should; may, might, must*

Here is a sentence for practice. Your task is to double underline all (but only) the helping verbs.

A boy who is good at jumping, who can usually shoot well, and who does have skill at dribbling will be a good basketball player.

Of course, your sentence will now look like this (the bolded words are the helping verbs):

*A boy who **is** good at jumping, who **can** usually shoot well, and who **does have** skill at dribbling **will be** a good basketball player.*

Step 2: Next students learn to repeat the words of the sentence to and through each helping verb or helping verb set--that is, each multi-word helping verb group--and ask *what*. The word that answers *what*--it must be the most sense-completing word, one word, and a reasonably nearby word--will be a verb candidate. Students label such words initially by placing a small circle under each. Try this with the above sentence; the answers are supplied below (with capital letters used in place of an underneath small circle):

*A boy who **is** GOOD at jumping, who **can** usually SHOOT well, and who **does have** SKILL at dribbling **will be** a good basketball PLAYER.*

Step 3: Third, students test each word that answers *what* to verify whether or not it is in fact a verb. For such a word to be a verb, it must have an *ing* way it can be written--in the same root sense--as part of the English language. They test this word by adding *ing* to it--just as it stands and outside the sentence. If the test works, the word is functioning as a verb; otherwise, students place a check mark under it to indicate that they have tested it and found it to not be a verb. Do this testing for yourself with the sentence that you worked on above; the answers are supplied below (with words that are verbs bolded, and those that are not unbolded).

*A boy who **is** good at jumping, who **can** usually **shoot** well, and who **does have** skill at dribbling **will be** a good basketball player.*

Exception 1: Whenever the word to be tested already ends in *ing*, students do not add *ing*; instead they detach it. If they can detach *ing* (and the sense does not change), the word is a verb. In the sentence *He is coming*, the word *coming* (*come*) is a verb.

Exception 2: Whenever the word to be tested ends in *ed*, students do not add *ing*; instead they substitute *ing* for *ed*. If they can substitute *ing* for *ed* (and the senses does not change), the word is a verb. In the sentence *He was needed*, the word *needed* (*needing*) is a verb.

Exception 3: Whenever the word to be tested is an irregular verb in its past participle form, students do not add *ing*; instead, they must recognize all such words as stemming from irregular verbs and label them as verbs (as long as their sense in their *ing* spelling does not change). In the sentence *He was told*, the word *told* (*telling*) is a verb.

Special Case in Which the Sense Changes: Occasionally the sense changes when you add *ing*; in such cases, the word is not functioning as a verb. For example, in the sentence *That box is empty*, the word *empty* means "content-less"; however, when you test *empty* by adding ing (*emptying*), the root sense changes to "spilling out."

How Students Find Verbs When There Is No Helping Verb

Basis for the Success of This Strategy

When verbs have no preceding helping verb, they are in either their present tense (such as *want* or *wants*) or in their past tense (such as *wanted*). In English, we have a back-up present and past tense--the *do /does /did* substitution. This enables us to add the negator *not* to sentences (*He wanted more* becomes *He did not want more*) and to turn statements to questions (*He wanted more* becomes *Did he want more*)--transformations that students have used since they first learned English.

Principle Governing the Type Word That Can Follow *Do, Does, or Did*: When students are asked to choose *see, sees, seeing, saw*, or *seen* as the right choice after *do*, they will choose *see*; after *does*, they will again choose *see*; and after *did*, they will once again choose *see*--there are no other correct answers.

The Rule: Whenever the *do /does /did* substitution for a word can replace the word and the sentence is still English, the word is a verb. For example, in the sentence *He wanted another piece*, you can replace *wanted* with *did want--He did want another piece*.

Corollary to the Rule: Whenever the *do/does/did* substitution for a word cannot replace the word because the sentence is no longer acceptable English, the word is **not** a verb. For example, in the sentence *He wanted another piece*, you can not replace *another* with *do another* because *He wanted do another piece* is unacceptable as English. Therefore, the word *another* is not functioning as a verb in this sentence.

Creating a Do/does/did Substitution for Words That End in *Ed*: Whenever students find a word that ends in *ed* in a sentence--such as the word *needed* in *He needed a dollar*, they **must** choose *did* because *did* alone (of the choices *do, does*, or *did*) carries past tense, which the *ed* that now has gotten dropped also carried. They would substitute *did need* for *needed*. *Did* is the only correct substitution for such a word.

Creating a Do/does/did Substitution for Words That End in *S* or *Es*: Whenever students find a word that ends in detachable *s* or *es* in a sentence--such as the word *needs* in *He needs a dollar*, they must choose *does* because *does* alone (of the choices *do, does*, or *did*) carries the *s / es* agreement (that signals third person singular present tense agreement), which the *s* or *es* that has now gotten dropped also carried. They would substitute *does need* for *needs*. *Does* alone is the correct substitution for such a word.

Creating a *Do/does/did* Substitution for Words That Are Irregular Verbs in Their Past Tense: Whenever students find in a sentence a word that is the past tense form for an irregular verb--such as the word *lost* in *He lost a dollar*, they must choose *did* because *did* alone (of the choices *do, does*, or *did*) carries the past tense meaning that of necessity gets lost when a verb accompanies *did*. They would substitute *did lose* for *lost*. *Did* is the only correct substitution under these circumstances.

Creating a *Do/does/did* Substitution for Words That Have No Ending and Are Not Irregular Verbs in Their Past Tense: Whenever students find a word that does not end in *ed* or *s / es* and is not an irregular verb in its past tense--such as the word *need* in *We need a dollar*, they must choose *do* because *do* alone carries present tense without third person singular agreement. They would substitute *do need* for *need*. *Do* must be chosen as the only acceptable substitution.

Here is an example sentence to try for yourself--try the test just on the words that end in *ed*:

She achieved her desired goals.

Notice how the *did* substitution works for *achieved--She did achieve her desired goals*. In contrast notice how it does not work for *desired--She achieved her did desire goals* (these words constitute unacceptable English). In this sentence *achieved* does function as a verb but *desired* does not.

How Students Learn to Find Subjects

Of necessity, the subject--that is, the whole subject--always falls between the two positions of any lead helping verb that can shift to cause or undo a question. Here are two examples.

In the sentence *The man on the left has dropped a glove*, the lead helping verb *has* can be shifted to the start of the sentence to create the question *Has the man on the left ... dropped a glove*. The words between the original and shifted positions of *has* are *the man on the left*. Because of these words' position, they must be the (whole) subject of the sentence.

In the sentence *The seedling that I am planting will become a lilac bush*, the lead helping verb *am* can not be shifted in this way because the resultant wording would be unacceptable as English--*Am the seedling that I ... planting will become a lilac bush*. On the other hand, for this same sentence the lead helping verb *will* can be shifted--*Will the seedling that I am planting ... become a lilac bush*. Therefore, the (whole) subject for this sentence must be *the seedling that I am planting*.

Application of These Findings to Identifying Fragments

Whenever a group of words lacks a lead helping verb that can be shifted to the start of the wording, that group of words must be a fragment. For example, for the wording *Whenever he was the first at bat*, the lead helping verb was can not be shifted to the start of the wording--note: *was*

whenever he ... the first at bat (a non-English compilation of words). Because there is no other lead helping verb available for testing, the very fact that the only lead helping verb *was* cannot be shifted indicates unmistakably that this group of words is a fragment and, therefore, cannot be capitalized and punctuated as a sentence.

Benefits from This Approach

When students have been asked (in anonymous questionnaires) whether instruction of the sort just described was of "no help," "some help," "much help," or "very much help" for their writing, 80% consistently responded that it had been of much or very much help. When asked the same question relative to its help for their reading, up to 75% responded that it had been of much or very much help. In fact, one freshman composition student (in a Veterinary Science program) said that whereas she used to have to read material three times to understand it, now--because of this instruction in grammar--one reading was enough.

I want to conclude by mentioning another phenomenon I experienced as a public speaking instructor. I noticed that the students to whom I had taught freshman composition (where I always included this kind of instruction in grammar) and who then took my introductory public speaking course--used unmistakably clear English when speaking extemporaneously. In contrast, over half of the other students (who had also taken the freshman composition course but without either any stress on grammar or on this kind of immersion in sentence structure) spoke so unclearly that the listener either could not understand what they said or could not do so without a struggle.

This approach is a breakthrough method for empowering students to be efficient and correct writers, readers, and speakers of English.

[Editor's Note: For more information, contact Hunter & Joyce Publishing Company™, Federal Hill Rd. 1, R.R.2, Box 54, Delhi, NY 13753. Phone: 800-745-3377; Fax: 607-746-2408]

Between Restrictive and Nonrestrictive: Amplifying Clauses

Brock Haussamen
(Bridgewater, N.J.)

My talk today will focus mainly on restrictive and nonrestrictive elements but I want to set this topic in the context of the larger questions and issues about grammar that we have been considering. I see these as three.

General Questions

The first is that we need to keep working our way toward a body of grammatical knowledge that is accurate and informative. People refer to grammar as if it were a set, static, and self-evident body of knowledge. They say, and we say, that students 'learn grammar' or that we 'teach grammar,' but the knowledge that is taken for granted by that term is varied, and in the case of many of its basic terms and ideas, extremely old. Many of the terms for the parts of speech and syntactic principles go back to the middle ages or the ancient Greeks. No wonder it is difficult to pull school grammar books away from the notional definition of a noun; that definition has two thousand years of Western culture behind it. So part of our ongoing job is to give these terms and ideas of grammar renewed attention, rigorous scrutiny, and revision where necessary. My talk will illustrate this, and this is an issue that interests me a great deal.

The second general question is, of all the grammar that we do know, what portions do we teach to students? What do young writers need to know about grammar, and why, and how can we verify that we are coming up with sensible answers here? This is the general question that raises all the heat in discussions about grammar. My talk will illustrate this problem also, but I want to point out here that I think that one reason why we have difficulty getting a handle on it is that it involves more than the concerns with writing and language that are always brought up. Writing behavior is in part social behavior, and so grammar is a social issue, a matter of social class and even political orientation, and I think these are the aspects of grammar that we should not avoid if we are going to have thorough discussions about why we are teaching it.

The third and final question is that once we decide what portions of grammar our students can benefit from, how do we teach such grammar effectively? What strategies work, and which don't? How might we deflect some of the enormous influence that the current grammar publishing establishment carries in order to open the way for new approaches? The question of teaching strategies has been dealt with in a number of presentations here.

A History of Restrictive and Nonrestrictive

Now to turn to the more concrete issue of the contrast between restrictive and nonrestrictive modifiers. I offer this discussion as an example of the kind of examination and consideration for revision of common grammar terms that we need more of.

The contrast between restrictive and nonrestrictive has historically been one of the most successful conceptualizations of recent grammar theory. It is relatively young as grammar terms go, dating back to Goold Brown's first use of the term *restrictive* in 1823. The term emerged from discussions of the lightening of punctuation. That is, in the 17th and 18th centuries, ALL relative clauses were bordered by commas. An example from a 1785 book on punctuation: "Never open your heart to persons, whom you do not know." But ten years later, in 1795, Lindley Murray included in his great grammar text a mention of an exception in the changing practice of the time. 'When two members are closely connected by a relative, restraining the general notion of the anteced-

ent to a particular sense, tho comma should be omitted." Murray's word, *restraining*, was replaced by Brown's use of *restricting* in his version of the rule shortly after, and the new term stuck. So the inconvenience of having a positive term, *restrictive*, refer to an absence of punctuation arose from the description of conditions under which certain traditional commas should be left out. Without shifting patterns of punctuation in the 18th century, we might not have the terms at all.

One sign of the success of the two terms is that they have spread from conventional grammar to linguistics, a field which has been very careful about its terminology. Linguistic grammars use the terms, as conventional grammars do, to describe not only relative clauses but modifiers of all kinds in their relation to the term they modify. The main idea is that all modifiers have one of two qualities--they are either essential, tightly bound, defining, and not separated by punctuation, or they are unessential, parenthetic, loosely bound, and separated by commas.

Amplifying Clauses

A couple of linguistic works have pointed out briefly that this duality is not as neat as it appears, but I think that the problem calls for more attention. The two terms are, I believe, polarities, not categories. The conventional grammar books give the impression that all modifying clauses fall under one heading or the other, but many seem to me to fall in between. That is, not all clauses are either defining and essential on the one hand, or parenthetical on the other, as the handbooks state. Many clauses contain information that does not restrict or define the antecedent, yet these clauses are important, essential, sometimes even primary information in the sentence. I will refer to them as **amplifying** clauses.

Let me give some examples. One type of amplifying clause is that which amplifies an adjective that precedes the antecedent noun. Such clauses are mildly redundant and are very common in speech and informal writing.

Some examples from students:

> The main character was a rich, egotistic young man *who seemed to think of himself as better than those around him.*

> We often have to find forgiving employers *who will allow us to work unusual schedules* so that we can met our nursing obligations. I have a strict schedule *that does not allow many deviations.*

Without the marked modifiers, the relative clauses would be much more restrictive: "a schedule that does not allow many deviations." With the underlined modifiers, however, the nouns have been restricted and defined, and yet one cannot say the relative clauses after them are therefore nonrestrictive to the extent that they are unessential. We might characterize these sentences by saying that the writer has spread the task of description over both the general adjective coming before the noun and the more detailed clause coming after it.

More frequently, however, there is no preceding adjective, the antecedent itself is identified intrinsically or in context, and the amplifying clause makes an important comment about it. Some examples from The New York Times:

> How fitting, then, that the Nobel Prize in Literature comes to Ms. Gordimer as her country begins to dismantle the system *that she has opposed with such urgency.*

> Now the prospect of housing them is looming in many more neighborhoods--some of them middle-class enclaves--under a new City Charter *that requires that all city projects be spread equitably among its neighborhoods.*

> The committee continued several hours of open hearings today, followed by a closed session *in which the panel's members discussed a variety of classified intelligence matters.*

And from students:

> Construction included masonry work of sandstone blocks *which were roughly shaped and laid in thick mud mortar.*

> They had their own little bottle of Ice-nine *which kept them estranged from the rest of the world.*

> Every day in the newspapers one can read about the increasing number of homeless families, neglected children and poverty-plagued pockets of people *who seem, by their continued existence, to represent a necessary condition in our otherwise affluent society.*

Because we are so accustomed to the concepts of restrictive and nonrestrictive, these examples may seem at first to fit into one category or the other. And it is true that they may each be closer to one pole or the other. That is my point–that the terms represent poles. But in each case the current definitions as presented in the handbooks do not fit easily if at all; even when the antecedent appears to be indefinite, as in *a closed session*, the following clause does not restrict or define as much as it comments and describes. Even when the antecedent is fully specified, as in the *bottle of Ice-nine*, the following clause is essential to the sentence and not parenthetic; the sentence would be very different without it. These amplifying clauses are generally not separated by commas; this makes sense because although they are not restricting the antecedent, they are still closely linked to it.

The concept of the amplifying clause would not be interesting if the term non-restrictive meant just what it said–anything other than restrictive. But it is not defined that way; it means instead a modifier that is nonessential, and the reason it is defined in this somewhat extreme way has to do with punctuation: the term has its roots in, and has remained primarily, guidance about the use of the comma. If a clause is judged to be nonrestrictive, the practical consequence is that commas separate it from the antecedent. But as long as restrictive and nonrestrictive serve as punctuation guides, they are compromised as precise descriptions of the syntax or semantics of modifiers, which include gradations in the relationship to the antecedent. If we want to retain the present terminology as a guide to commas use, a concept such as the amplifying clause would be helpful to describe a great many sentences.

Conclusion

This sort of reexamination of the familiar terms of grammar is an important process, and I hope that my book *Revising the Rules: Traditional Grammar and Modern Linguistics* might serve as an informative starting point for a fresh look at a wide range of grammar concepts.

But such reexamination quickly leads us to the second question I raised at the beginning: Which topics of grammar do we pass along to students, and why do we choose those? The reconsideration of restrictive and nonrestrictive modifiers that I have presented should lead us to consider not only their accuracy as grammatical concepts but also their pedagogical usefulness. Some might feel that the amplifying clause should be added to the mass of abstractions already heaped on some students. But I think that the practicalities of punctuation are the real writing issues here, and that we should consider telling students in writing classes to put commas around extra, nonessential information and letting it go at that, dropping from those classes and their textbooks the baggage of the restrictive and nonrestrictive concepts. We can retain them of course in grammar and linguistics courses, but we as grammarians perhaps need to become better than we sometimes are at distinguishing the grammar information that we *could* teach writers from the grammar information that writers really need.

[Editor's Note: *Revising the Rules* (1993, ISBN: 0-8403-9032-7) is available from Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company, 4050 Westmark Drive, Dubuque, Iowa 52002.]

Using Error Notebooks to Improve Grammar

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An article published in English Journal notes:

> Grammar is very often taught but very seldom learned.... Yet despite the efforts made on various fronts, the grammar of their own language remains a mystery to most students. (1990) p. 66.

The authors also point out that "Traditional grammar instruction is bound to fail because it is given without any realistic context." (1990) p. 55. (Meyer et al.) "Language is often divorced from reading, literature, vocabulary, and spelling: although traditionally grammar has been connected to writing, this link is often poorly conceived." (1990, 66)

As far back as 1966 when colleagues across the nation gathered at Darmouth College to set a new agenda for the teaching of English, there were arguments over the place of grammar in the teaching of English. Some participants believed that time was wasted in the "teaching of obsolete grammar resting on outmoded assumptions about language." (1967, 72) Ann Warner felt that the teaching of grammar was futile even though "it continues to play a significant role in English language-arts Curriculum" in public schools "often consuming nearly half of the available instructional time." (1993, 76)

Arguments have shown traditional grammar instruction to be ineffective. There has not been sufficient work on how writing instruction can be improved. In all the arguments against grammar in the last thirty or so years, in practice grammar is still in the curriculum.

NCTE passed an "anti-grammar" resolution in 1985 that noted that ample evidence from fifty years of research has shown that the teaching of grammar in isolation does not lead to improvement on students' speaking and writing and that in fact it hinders development of students' oral and written language. Patrick Hartwell in "Grammar, Grammars and the Teaching of Grammar" wrote that "most students reading their writing aloud, will correct in essence all errors of spelling, grammar, and by intonation, punctuation, but usually without noticing that what they read departs from what they wrote." He also notes that errors occur because of instruction. Brosnahan and Neuleib in "Teaching Grammar to Writers" state that "when writers learn grammar, as opposed to teachers merely covering it, the newly acquired knowledge contributes to writing ability."

Those of us who work at the community college are often tempted to conclude that grammar instruction is needed for most students. One may be apt to agree with the 1963 Braddock, Lloyd-Jones and Schorer study that "instruction in formal grammar is an ineffective way to help students achieve proficiency in writing." This study is often mentioned when grammar is discussed. One could argue that double-think pervades the discipline of language arts. Since students need to produce text that will engage a reader and demonstrate their knowledge or mastery of a subject, students need to be helped to discover ways to edit and correct their texts.

Grammar must be taught in the context of writing. Students who do not know the conventions of edited standard American English are likely to do poorly. At Harrisburg Area Community College students are placed into writing classes according to their ability to recognize correct sentences. We use a writing sample and computerized sentence skills test. Errors in a text or poor grammar determines in part the student's success.

For a number of years, I have used the error notebook to help students correct and improve papers they have written. Each student has a grammar handbook as one of their texts. What they are to do is correct each

paper after it has been evaluated with the errors notated. The student is to keep a list of the errors in a notebook. Then the student is to use the handbook to find "the rules" and to enter into the notebook any corrections to the sentence. The student is expected to study the error. Some students may elect to rewrite the paper. The expectation is that the paper will improve in both content and grammar. Students are also to do exercises in the grammar handbook. There are times when I will discuss a major problem in grammar most students are having. Students are also encouraged to discuss their papers and/or use the writing center. Bonus points are offered to papers that improve. At the end of the semester all papers are returned with the error notebook. A final grade is given to the portfolio.

I agree with the authors of "Grammar in Context: Why and How." "Grammar instruction should be concentrated on the proofreading stage of writing assignments." (1990, 57) Those students who take the process seriously do improve. The students who correct each error and try to learn from those mistakes tend to earn higher grades in the course and subsequent courses. The process of language acquisition is rather complex. Students who understand how language works are empowered. These students are able to make connections and see patterns in the language. Students who read and who are sensitive to readers' needs tend to make much progress.

I believe that the error notebook works for some students because they are forced to rewrite and change their texts. They are confronted by their grammar problems, and they can learn to solve them. The best students tend to make tremendous progress. Those who neglect to do the assignment make little to no progress. Essentially, they have chosen not to improve. Once students commit themselves to improvement, they can discover ways to successfully correct their papers. While this technique does not address all the issues involved with grammar instruction and its place, it does help some students to become more committed to their writing. Warner is right when she says that "Good Writing is, however, more than mechanically correct writing." Nonetheless understandable writing tends to be correct. (1993, 79) Furthermore, Renwick reports that "where grammar skills are concerned, the responsibility of an English teacher is to create in students an awareness in their grammar and to allow them to see the choices they have in using standard over non standard usage." (1994, 29)

Martha Kolln wrote "there is probably not a school district where grammar is not taught, either because it is mandated by the curriculum or because individual teachers believe in its importance. NCTE must be hiding its head in the sand when it comes to actual teaching practices." Effective pedagogy will help students to create successful prose. Grammar instruction should help students in achieving this goal. Poor writers with poor grammar skills may have limited their intellectual growth as well as their academic futures.

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Surrealism and Grammar: Creatively Reinvigorating the Classroom

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As a poet who also teaches advanced English grammar for future teachers, I am always looking for ways to bring the excitement of the creative writing class to the grammar class. Every semester, it seems, the same students who were so excited and motivated to learn creative writing dread the proposition of having to take a state-mandated course in grammar. The key to making this course stimulating, it seemed to me, was to import certain creative techniques into the grammar course, techniques which would illustrate to students the intrinsic excitement of language creation, an excitement shared by both grammarians and poets, but one for which only the writers get the notoriety and "glamour." In other words, I felt it was my duty to show my students that doing grammar was as fun as making poetry, a feeling they could pass along to their students. As the new collection of essays, *The Place of Grammar in Writing Instruction*, points out, the future of the teaching of grammar depends on teaching it affectively, getting students to like grammar (Brosnahan & Neuleib 208). The best place to start in a course is to get students to progress from their innate unconscious grammar to conscious. To that end, it is important to provide "interactive group tasks, which enable students to generate the patterns and structures unconscious knowledge of the language" (Brosnahan & Neuleib 209). This paper describes what I have found to be some useful strategies for tapping that unconscious knowledge, language games borrowed from the French surrealists poets and artists.

Surrealism, a movement started by Andre Breton, which had its origins in the first world war, and which had its own manifesto by 1924, is noted for its attempts to transcend logic, borrow the language of dreams, subvert bourgeois notions of artistic taste and standards, and generally to fly in the face of Western logic. The games invented by Breton and his followers have the following characteristics:

> They are freely entered into; separated from the run of ordinary 'serious' life, they are circumscribed by their own time and space; they are uncertain, their outcomes not predetermined; they are economically unproductive and not concerned with material interest, they are governed by rules; they are associated with imaginative projection and make believe. (Gooding 11)

One notes in these characteristics the one seemingly anomalous one that, just as language itself, the games are governed by specific rules. Chomsky's famous "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously," which in itself has a surrealist ring, demonstrates the rule-bound and yet, innate, structures which govern language production. Surrealist games do the same, allowing students to compose their own poems by adhering to a few rules.

The Exquisite Corpse

Perhaps the most famous surrealist game is "The Exquisite Corpse," named after one of the noun phrases generated by the game. Classified as a "chain game," the Corpse must be played by at least two people, preferably three. The object of the game is for each of the players to follow a set sentence pattern such as the following:

> Indefinite or definite article, adjective, noun, transitive verb, article, adjective, noun.

One person in the small group must write down, in column form, three versions of the first three slots (article, adjective, noun); he or she then folds the paper so that the next person cannot see what the writer has written. The second person then writes three verbs, folds the paper again, and passes it to the third person who writes out three versions of the final noun phrases. The key is that in writing the words, each person must fold over the

paper so that the next person cannot see what the previous person has written. When the paper is finally unfolded, students discover some witty, yet strangely poignant lines which embody the surrealist spirit:

Writer #1	Writer #2	Writer #3
The exquisite corpse	drinks	the new wine.
A dying man	drips	the pale bird.
The dead fighter	hammers	the ghostly fog.

As one can see, this activity underscores the underlying, mechanistic nature of language. Though the poems may not make semantic sense, they do make grammatical sense, and The Corpse is a particularly useful game when reviewing form and structure classes. Of course, this activity can be varied to accommodate different lesson plans. For instance, I had a number of students in my advanced grammar course who, for some inexplicable reason, were confusing prepositional phrases with direct objects. In this case, I had them construct one "Corpse" poem using prepositional phrases in the final position, and then one in which they had to generate a noun phrase in the direct object slot. This variation also underscores the difference between transitive and intransitive verbs.

Conditionals

In the game called "Conditionals," a pair of players take turns inventing sentences which contain an opening adverbial clause beginning with "if" or "when" and then a main clause in the conditional or future tense. Again, the student writing the opening clause must fold over the paper so that his or her partner can not see what is written. For instance, here is a group of sentences my students generated with this activity:

If you never had to change your underwear,
you would have mail on Valentine's Day.

If hearts gave birth,
then all the flowers in the world would die.

If I jumped out of the window,
ghost stories would come true.

If everyone ran around naked,
then I would sit upside down.

If tears were made of sand,
then water would rain back into the sky.

This game is not only valuable in teaching concepts such as conditional tense, two-part subordination, etc..-- it can be used to discuss the issue of putting a comma after a "presentence modifier," the error that Lunsford and Conners in their 1988 study "Frequency of Formal Errors" identified as the error marked most often by writing teachers. The problem of the presentence modifier is also addressed in Rei Noguchi's *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing* (1991). His method is to transform declarative sentences containing presentence modifiers into yes and no questions (57), an effective method, but one which may confuse students because two operations are required. In the "Conditionals" game, students need just to write the sentences, rather than transform them into questions.

Other Activities

To review many major grammatical concepts, entire stories or poems can be constructed in groups or collaboratively by the whole class by designing exercises in which each student is instructed to produce a certain line using a certain formula. For instance, one student might be asked to write a sentence beginning with a gerund phrase, fold the paper and the pass it to another student who writes a sentence containing a that-clause functioning as a direct object, and so on. When each group or the class is finished, they can then tinker with and rearrange the sentences to produce a poem or story that has a surreal feel, but is held together by some narrative thread.

Another option is to design a handout listing various instructions for students to compose lines following certain grammatical structures. For instance, one might ask students to write a ten-line poem following ten specific steps such as "Create a metaphor using the following construction: 'The (adjective) (concrete noun) of (abstract noun). Jim Simmerman's poem "Moon Go Away, I Don't Love You Anymore," was written using this activity. Simmerman first wrote out twenty instructions to himself and then created the poem by following those instructions (Simmerman 122). Here are the first few lines from that poem:

> Morning comes on like a wink in the dark.
> It's me it's winking at.
> Mock light lulls in the boughs of the pines.
> Dead air numbs my hands.

"Moon Go Away. . ." was eventually published in *Poetry*, which illustrates the generative power of this kind of activity.

Conclusion

Though I have used them only in college-level courses, I am sure that surrealist games would be useful for almost all grade levels. They illustrates the almost computer-like structure of grammar, while allowing students an enormous amount of creative flexibility. Students are ostensibly writing poems, but they are really "doing" grammar, understanding how the form and structure of language coalesce in any language act.

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Functional Grammar for English (Not Latin)

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The Australian government has strong economic motives for developing an educational system that will prepare citizens for employment that requires much higher levels of literacy than in the past. Its citizens include recent immigrants from Asia and elsewhere, descendants of earlier European immigrants, and Aboriginal populations. These people do not have the tradition of Latin grammar schools, but they do need to learn to write effectively. Therefore the government recognized the work being done in functional linguistics and has underwritten efforts at developing and applying it. Although this approach is too new for statistical research studies of its effectiveness, it does present some interesting ideas worth considering and perhaps applying.

The New South Wales Board of Studies has prepared for K-6 teachers a background on this approach to grammar, *A Handbook of Grammar For Teachers of English K-6*. Many of the examples refer to the Australian culture, but the charts are useful as they are. I want to review the contents for you, with occasional expansions from the academic background for it, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* by M. A. K. Halliday. I shall also highlight how it differs from what we traditionally teach in the U.S.A., commenting on how some of the variations help me in my understanding of how English grammar functions. Thus, they help in my teaching of college courses in English composition.

The foreword summarizes the difference in this approach:

> While traditional grammar tends to focus on the naming of parts of speech and the appropriate syntax of sentences, functional grammar describes the relationship between language and meaning, describing how the grammatical resources of the language enable us to make different kinds of meaning in different contexts. (1)

In this functional approach, meaning in context is the beginning and the end.

As theoretical framework, Chapter One lists the functions of language as expressing ideas and information, interacting with people, and creating a text. Texts include greetings, grocery lists, messages left on answering machines, radio advertising, speeches written to be read, memos, essay exams, book reviews, national constitutions and much much more, of course. These all have a context of situation, which involves the subject matter or field, the roles and relationships of the people involved, and the method of communication. The context of culture provides the world view, and it narrows to the view of any particular group of people occupationally, religiously, socially, ethnically, or geographically. Within the specific context, communicators make choices how to express themselves. The choices develop three types of patterns. The semantic level organizes the information. The graphological level organizes the physical aspects such as spelling, punctuation, and sound patterns. In between, connecting the two, the grammatical level structures words, phrases and clauses to realize the ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions. This level is what the handbook deals with.

Chapter Two begins with grammar as we recognize it, defining a sentence as consisting of at least one clause. Then the terminology differs, because the clause is defined as a group of words containing a verb of any type; minor clauses have only an infinitive or a participle. (In my teaching I conform to local usage.) Simple illustrations show how clauses are connected and included in complex sentences. Charts also show how clauses are made up of groups of one or more words including noun groups, verb groups, prepositional phrases, and adverbial groups.

Chapter Three begins less traditionally. It shows how sentences express ideational meanings about their *participants* (our subjects and objects), their *processes* (our predicates), and their *circumstances* (our adverbial expressions and prepositional phrases). More traditionally, the noun groups in participants and circumstances include nominalizations. They can be expanded with determiners, numeratives, describers, classifiers, and embedded phrases and clauses. Classifiers differ from describers in that the former cannot have "very" inserted before them. Nouns are distinguished as mass, count, or proper nouns. Singular and plural forms of nouns are presented in a simple chart that we could use without adjustment. The determiners are divided according to their purposes of asking, pointing out, or showing ownership. The other terms are also charted in familiar elementary ways.

Circumstances include space, time, manner, means, cause, extent, accompaniment, matter, and role. Charts carry examples of how prepositional phrases, adverbial groups, and noun groups indicate these circumstances. This list of circumstances can suggest to college students what kinds of information might expand their drafts.

Although the treatment of tenses is traditional, much of the treatment of verbs is distinctive. Verbs as processes are divided into three types. (1) *Material processes* are our prototypical action verbs of doing or behaving. (2) *Mental processes* of thinking, perceiving, and feeling and *verbal processes* of saying, asking, and telling form the second group. (3) *Relational* verbs express being, having, becoming, and representing. I find this three-way distinction useful in teaching basic and standard first-year college English courses. Material processes carry the action in narratives, instructions, and much other expository writing. Mental processes project facts, ideas, and quotations both direct and indirect. Thus, they occur often in stories and news reports. Relational verbs describe well, although they leave the situation static. These three types of verbs use different unmarked present tenses, so distinguishing them semantically helps non-native speakers of English to make the right choices.

As a word order language, English rearranges the order of parts of a sentence to change a statement into a question, and it omits some information to create a command with only the infinitive form for the verb. The omitted parts are the subject and the part of the verb that "locates the process in time, or shows the speaker's or writer's judgement on the matter" (25). This part is called the *finite*. It is the first auxiliary or the root form with an *ed*, *s*, or null ending. (Simple charts show the forms for both regular verbs and for "be" and "have.") The separation of the concept of finite enables the handbook to illustrate a declarative clause as "subject + finite," an interrogative clause as "finite + subject," and an imperative clause as without either finite or subject. In this way the functional approach focuses on meaning rather than rules, reflecting here the importance of time in English.

Another way to change the type of sentence is with tone of voice; a rise at the end changes a statement into a question. A further method is adding a tag question to the end of a sentence. Tag questions remind the audience of the core of the sentence, the subject and its verb, don't they? They begin with the finite in an auxiliary form to refer to the predicate of the sentence; the content of the verb is omitted. Then comes a negative, if the original sentence lacked one, and a pronoun referring to the subject. I like using tag questions as a shortcut for checking for complete sentence by seeing if it is possible to make a tag. Tags also identify the major parts of a sentence that need number agreement, because the pronoun and auxiliary refer to the subject and predicate.

Our traditional teaching does not pay much attention to the mood system, which has a bigger role than most of us are aware of. Besides negatives, the mood system has two primary means of expression: auxiliary verbs and certain adverbs. The auxiliary verbs are called *modals: can, could, may, might, must, ought to*, and *has to*. Charts show how they

indicate degree of probability or usualness or of obligation or inclination. The adverbs are called *modal adjuncts* and include terms such as *certainly, probably, possibly, always, usually, sometimes*. These terms allow us to discuss what is may not be true, and they also express our attitude toward it. Therefore, they enable us to modulate the effects on the audience. Illustrations half a page long show how exposition uses high degrees of probability for persuasion and low degrees to explore phenomena, opening topics for discussion. The mood system has a great effect on tone and on what a writer is actually doing to the audience: *Send me* . . . . versus *Could you please send me* . . . ? Should we pay more attention to what we do to the audience and our attitudes about the truth of the content?

The chapter on textual meanings begins with a warning:

> Teachers also need to be aware when they are reading aloud to students that the lexical density of written language may make it difficult for students who are only listening without a copy of the written text in front of them. (33)

Lexical density is the number of content words per clause. It is a major difference between speech and writing, contrary to popular belief, but easily tested in recorded conversations. Speech has fewer content words yet more intricate grammar and more grammatical function words, such as prepositions. On the other hand, writing has simpler, diagrammable grammatical structures packed with a higher proportion of content words. One reason for this is that since speech is mostly face-to-face, spoken words like *here* and *this* do not need clarification. A comment about young children applies to many of my first-year college students:

> One of the most important things for young children is to learn that written language is not simply spoken language written down. They must learn that written language has to be independent of the physical context, that written texts are independent and cohesive. (34)

In writing, the terms of reference like *here, this*, and other pronouns refer to other parts of the text. Writers must remember to include those other parts and to make the relationship clear. This specification contributes to higher lexical density. A sequence of references to the same participant creates cohesive reference chains. Lexical chains not referring to the same entity also reflect cohesion with their linked strands of content. The strands contain repeated words, similar meanings, contrasting meanings, classes of items, or part-whole relationships. Other indicators of cohesion are the connectives that indicate logical relations of sequence, addition, time order, causation, and contrast. All these are charted and illustrated clearly.

Finally, this handbook explains how English exploits word order to arrange the flow of information for easy understanding. The starting point of a sentence, called the *theme*, contains everything through the first participant, circumstance, or process in the clause. Although the theme is most often the subject participant, the subject may be preceded by an interpersonal element such as a term of address (vocative), a continuative such as *anyway*, a connective, or any sort of circumstance (worded with a prepositional phrase or adverbial expression). In imperative sentences, the theme is usually the process, the verb. The remainder of the sentence after the theme contains new information that is the point of the sentence. It contrasts with the information in the theme, which the audience already knows or can interpret. This pattern from known to new is illustrated in a narrative where the subject of each sentence is a character and the predicate tells what the character does. Such a pattern develops a smooth style that a reader can easily follow.

Features of word order are fundamental to good English style. Because they are so pervasive, they are subconscious in good writers and thus not taught. Students trying to learn to write without a background of extensive reading can benefit from having the patterns pointed out explicitly. Since English depends more on word order than on inflections, it makes more sense to teach the word order patterns, I believe, than to teach only Latinate inflections, which nouns usually omit anyway. As a word-order language, English needs plenty of devices to alter word order to fit patterns of known themes at the beginning

of sentences and noteworthy new information at the end. The only further such device discussed here is the alternation from active to passive. The many other mechanisms for controlling word order are not mentioned in this brief handbook for elementary teachers.

Explicit explanation of word order patterns has advantages. It can clarify misleading advice. For example, traditional handbooks often recommend varying sentence beginnings. Random variation, however, can create difficult reading if not absolute incoherence. What is good, however, is matching the beginnings of sentences to meaning. When meaning is a series of actions by a single character, that character is logically the theme, repeatedly. When the meaning is a contrast or sequence, some sort of connective or continuative showing that may precede the subject and thus become part of the theme. Circumstances or conditions can become themes when they are recognizable. Matching themes--sentence beginnings--to the meaning can lead to parallel structures when the meanings are parallel and to varying structures when the meanings differ.

We can further apply functional principles to issues like comma splices and fragments. Comma splices are a partial carryover from speech (called "paratactic secondary orality" by people like Lester Faigley in *Fragments of Rationality*, 201-3). Since speech does not use punctuation, it does not have any consistent indication of the ends of sentences. Speech can pause effectively, but often speakers rush on to their next point, or they may pause in the middle to emphasize the next word or just to think of it. In speech, comma splices and fragments are not a problem; the audience understands from context, without either commas or periods. Comma splices create a word order problem because the first sentence loses the force of end focus. An advantage of fragments in advertising is that they provide for more ends of focus. Advertising frequently provides models of written language following spoken norms--models that make our traditional teaching of written composition harder.

This short review cannot fully develop the concepts introduced here. It cannot cite examples for clarification. But perhaps it can alert you to some different ways of examining, explaining, and teaching English grammar. I would be delighted to discuss this approach further either via e-mail or by other means.

Board of Studies NSW. *Handbook of Grammar For Teachers of English K-6*. Sydney: Erudition Teaching and Training Materials, 1994. (You can probably purchase this book as I did for about $10 by sending a credit card number. Erudition's address is Level 6, St. James Centre, 111 Elizabeth Street, Sydney NSW 2000, Australia)

Halliday. M. A. K. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, 2nd ed. London: Edward Arnold, 1994. (St. Martin's Press Scholarly and Reference Division distributes Arnold books in the U.S.)

MINUTES OF THE 1994 ATEG BUSINESS MEETING

University Room, Best Western Motel, Normal, Illinois August 12r 1994--7:30 p.m.

After Martha Kolln, President, welcomed those present and thanked local hospitality chairpeople for the pre-meeting social hour, discussion began on a variety of topics.

RESOLUTIO~J (S) Information: After a three-hour discussion, NCTE's resolution committee rejected ATEG's 1993 resolution, refusing to bring it before the annual meeting on the grounds that (1) it was essentially a request for research funds and as such should be directed to the research grants committee and (2) the resolution had no chance to pass and so should not be brought before the convention. Following the resolutions committee's advice, ATEG people proposed a workshop on the rhetoricaluses of grammar. Although interest in grammar was indicated by the thirty people who attended a 5:30 Saturday night meeting and by standing-room-only audiences at 4-C's grammar sessions, the NCTE program committee rejected the proposed workshop on the grounds that it would have no audience. suaaestions: -ATEG should encourage applications to NCTE for research grants. -ATEG should submit resolutions to CCCC. Decisions: -Martha Kolln will present ATEG's resolution(s) to the 4-C's committee in Orlando. -A new resolution drafted during the meeting was accepted: WHER~S research suggests that the formal teaching of graloamar seldom has a positive effect upon students' writing, and WHEREAS an emerging body of research suggests that relevant aspects of grammar are learned and applied more effectively when taught in the context of students' writing than when taught in isolation, BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED that the WCTE encourage teachers to explore effective ways of drawing upon students' grammatical competence in helping them in the writing process. -Martha Kolln will discuss the new resolution with the NCTE resolutions committee chair and take appropriate action.

DECIDIWG ATEG PRIORITIES Deciding on ATEG's priorities yielded much discussion but no decisions. Basic is whether the goal is to influence schools or to promote ATEG members' research.

IDEWTIFYIWG ATEG'S WARKET Discussion centered around the possibility of widely distributing a brief but telling questionnaire, possibly through NCTE, other professional organizations, next year's ATEG meeting notice, and a (non-existent) master list of school principals, etc. Suggestions as to the questionnaire's contents included the questions used by researchers reporting at this conference. Who would approve the wording and distribution of such a questionnaire was not decided. Paula Foster drafted a questionnaire during the meeting and gave it to the president.

INTERWET, BULLETIW BOARDS, ETC. Information: Computer literates stressed the opportunities afforded ATEG by Internet, bulletin boards, and similar computer devices, stating that various lists are available through these sources. hlso, ATEG could set up a data base of bibliographies, book reviews, and other materials viewers might be interested in. Decisions: -Ed Vavra asked those interested to meet with him after the meeting amd/or to be in touch with him via mail or e-mail. -Ed will determine whether NCTE has an 800 number; if so, he will publish it. He will also investigate the cost of 800 numbers for groups such as ATEG.

ATEG BROCHURE Information: Discussion about ATEG's public relations/membership needs included the idea of developing a simple one-page tri-fold brochure to state ATEG goals and attract new members. Decision: Martha Kolln will pursue the idea and will discuss with NCTE how to include a brochure in their mailings.

RELATIO~JSHIP WITH WCTE Information: -ATEG is now an assembly of NCTE. -Thus far, ATEG efforts at presenting a workshop and a resolution have been rejected. -

NCTE has accepted a panel on systemic grammar for next year; however, since it is titled, "Classroom Approaches to Genre, " it may not attract people looking for help with grammar in the classroom. Suaaestions: - ATEG members are encouraged to propose their own research projects on theory, method, etc. and present them to NCTE. Several people might apply for a research grant together. ATEG cannot sponsor such research. - ATEG might invite an NCTE official or board member to speak at ATEG's next meeting, explaining how NCTE can help assemblies.

PRIVATE PUBLISHIWG Information: Ed Vavra announced his formation of a publishing company for getting chosen manuscripts out and solicited manuscripts from ATEG members. This is not a vanity press, but the author must pay printing costs. He is interested in setting up a Bulletin Board if ATEG can help with the cost of initial equipment. Decision: -Ed will explore the possibilities and draw up a proposal for ATEG to consider.

ORGAWIZATIOW~U. COWCERWS Information: -ATEG has $1600 now, but not all bills for the 1994 conference have been paid. - ATEG now has a book review editor, Lt-wl\re u.. -ATEG needs a membership chairperson. suaaestions: -Would your school be billing to spend $20 to send the newsletter to some schools in its area? -The next newsletter should put out a call for membership.

WEXT nEETIWGS Discussion: Should ATEG move meetings around the country to enable more people to attend? Subsidize officers for meetings out of their own area3 Hold regional meetings, either simultaneously or alternatively with national ones? Meet only every two or three years? Piggyback meetings onto NCTE or other professional meetingsl Meet in summer or during the academic year? suaaestions: Investigate the possibility of offering CEU credits for ATEG meetings. Decisions: -1995 meeting will be Williamsport, Pennsylvania. Ed Vavra will set it up. -1996 meeting will be in Michigan or Illinois. Janet Gilbert and Irene Brosnahan will try to set it up. -1997 meeting may be in Kentucky. Terry Irons will look into the possibility. - Preferred meeting times are the first or second week of August or the last week of June. -

Present officers and executive committee will continue to serve.

Wanda VAn Goor, Acting Secretary

1995 Conference Program

Pre-Conference WorkShop
Thursday, July 27, 1995

9:30 -1; 2-6
The Kiss Approach to
Grammar in the Curriculum, K - College
(Ed Vavra)

Friday, July 28, 1995

10:00 **Martha Kolln** (State College, PA) President's Remarks

10:30 **Sabah A. Salih** (Bloomsburg, PA): "The Politics of Grammar"

11:00 **William McCleary** (Livonia, NY): "(Still) trying to find an answer to the problem of 'error' in writing"

11:30 **Agbaw, S. Ekema** (Bloomsburg, PA): "The Fate of "he" or "she" and "her" or "his" in a Non-Sexist World"

12:00 LUNCH -- Le Jeune Chef

1:30 **Jim Kenkel** (Eastern Kentucky) & **Robert Yates** (Central Missouri): "Grammar and Literacy: Embedding Outside Sources in Text"

2:00 **Julia Karet** (Miyazaki, Japan): "Teaching Grammar to Japanese College Students"

2:30 **Frank Peters** (Bloomsburg, PA): "Creativity in Short Phrasing"

3:00 Break

3:15 **Cornelia Paraskevas** (Monmouth, Oregon): "The Reading-Grammar Connection"

3:45 **Stephane Dunn** (Granger, IN): "Using Humour and Creative Techniques to Teach Students the Common Sense of Formal English"

4:15 **Glenn Swetman** (Biloxi, MS): "The Nine-Question Method of Teaching Grammar."

4:45 Dinner Break

7:00 Business Meeting

8:00 Publishing Session

Saturday, July 29

9:00 **R.A. Buck** (Charleston, IL): "Simplifying Tree Structures in the Grammar Classroom"

9:30 **Jim Brosnan** (Providence, RI): "Teaching Grammar Through Technical Documents"

10:00 Break

10:15 **Cornelia Paraskevas** (Monmouth, Oregon): "Grammar Textbooks"

10:45 **Audrey Caldwell** (Shillington, PA): "*Syntax* Book Reviews: What Should be Covered?"

11:15 Delma McLeod-Porter's Proposal for an Official ATEG Bibliographer (Ed Vavra)

11:45 LUNCH

1:00 **Anthony Hunter** (Delhi, N.Y.): "A Hands-On Non-Traditional Grammar That's Fun"

1:30 **Brock Haussamen** (Bridgewater, N.J.): "Between Restrictive and Nonrestrictive Amplifying Clauses."

2:00 **James Boswell, Jr.** (Harrisburg, PA): "Using Error Notebooks to Improve Grammar"

2:30 Break

2:45 **Margaret Enright Wye** (Kansas City, MO): "To Pause, To Separate, To Terminate: A Prolegomena to Understanding Punctuation"

3:15 **Heping Zhao** (Fullerton, CA): "Particle, Complement, and Phrasal Verb: Rethinking 'ON'"

3:45 **Kevin Griffith** (Columbus, OH): "Surrealism and Grammar: Creatively Reinvigorating the Classroom"

3:45 End of Conference

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